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This Issue in Brief

City-family composition in relation to income, 1941 and 1944

In 1944 there were 7 million city families and single persons with incomes below $2,000, 3 million that received less than $1,000. Over three-fifths of the 7 million contained two or more members; this group was about evenly divided among families with a woman as head, married couples living alone, and families containing husband, wife, and one or more other persons. Incomes in excess of $5,000 went mainly to over 3 million husband-wife families of three or more persons; 1 million other families of two or more, but fewer than 200,000 single persons, were in this income class. Between 1941 and 1944, practically every type of family improved its income position. Page 175.

Effects of war casualties on economic responsibilities of women

Greater earnings responsibilities may be expected to devolve upon women in the United States, as a result of the war. The death or disablement of hundreds of thousands of veterans will force their widows or wives into part- or full-time work to support not only themselves but in some cases others as well. In addition, young women who normally would have married will remain single and responsible for their own support, and in some instances for financial help to others. Data from various official sources, given in the article on page 181, throw light on various aspects of these problems.

Employment situation in liberated and enemy countries

Prior to the beginning of World War II, the European countries that were to become the scene of conflict had made varying gains in employment, in part stimulated by war preparation. Germany had mobilized and controlled labor before September 1939, but the countries which she invaded had taken only partial steps of this kind. The integrated system of labor control introduced by the German occupation authorities was resisted in many ways. In 1944, 7 million foreign workers were employed inside the Reich—one-fifth of the civilian labor force. By the autumn of 1945 the liberated countries, handicapped in many ways, had made substantial progress in reducing unemployment, liquidating labor controls, and resuming the production of civilian goods. Governments were making plans for training, rehabilitation, reconstruction, and, in some countries, nationalization of basic industries. In the defeated enemy countries economic recovery waited upon allied plans for reparations and disarmament. Page 187.

Employment outlook for automobile mechanics

A sharp rise in employment of automobile mechanics is in prospect, now that the war is over, but, taking the country as a whole, the number of men seeking work in the occupation will probably exceed the number of available jobs. Many less skilled men will have difficulty in finding work, particularly after the next few months, although the relatively small group of highly skilled all-round mechanics and specialists will have a good chance of employment. A detailed analysis of the prospective labor demand and supply in this occupation is presented in the article on page 211.

Housing in foreign countries

In Canada, overcrowding was the most acute problem disclosed in a survey of existing housing, made by a private agency. The space averaged a fraction over 1 room per occupant when kitchens and living rooms were included. Running water was available in from 37 percent of farm dwellings to 72 percent of urban

homes (p. 233). In Switzerland, in a plan for subsidizing housing construction, authorized by the Federal Government in October 1945, preference was to be given to construction for large families, the replacement of unsanitary units, the amelioration of poverty, and the housing of persons who might otherwise leave the country (p. 236). In France, pending the development of extensive long-term plans the Government has adopted such emergency measures as the erection of prefabricated units and workers' barracks and the control of available housing through requisition by specially created local authorities (p. 234).

State labor legislation in 1945

Of the 44 State legislatures which met in regular session in 1945, one State passed an act for the protection of migrant workers in agriculture, and one outlawed closed and union shops. A number legislated on various aspects of wages—minimum wages, equal pay, wage payment and collection, and prevailing wage rates—and several dealt with measures to prevent discrimination in employment. Thirteen established funds for compensating second injuries, 4 enacted occupational-disease laws, and 19 increased the maximum benefits payable for industrial injuries. These measures and other 1945 legislative action affecting labor are summarized in the article on page 248.

Wage structure in the machinery industries, January 1945

Plant workers in the machinery industries had straight-time earnings averaging 98 cents per hour in January 1945; the men's average was $1.01, and that of women was 81 cents. In general, the pay was highest in large establishments, in large communities, and in unionized plants. Page 265.

Union wages in the building trades, 1945

As of July 1, 1945, the union hourly wage rates of building-trades journeymen in 75 cities averaged $1.615; those of helpers and laborers, 99.7 cents. As compared with the preceding year, these averages represented increases of 1.8 and 4.7 percent, respectively. The average standard workweek in July 1945 for these two groups was 39.8 and 40.0 hours. Page 276.

Trends in urban wage rates, April–October 1945

Between April and October 1945 basic wage rates in urban manufacturing and selected nonmanufacturing industries [showed small] increases. The major portion of these increases occurred subsequent to the Executive order of August 18. Manufacturing industries as a whole showed wage-rate increases averaging 1.0 percent in the 6-month interval, and nonmanufacturing industries an average rise of 2.9 percent. From January 1941 to October 1945 wage rates in urban manufacturing rose almost 34 percent. From April 1943 to October 1945 those in nonmanufacturing increased 21.3 percent. Page 289.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit or base period	1945			1944	1939: Average for year
		December	November	October	December	
Employment and unemployment						
Civilian labor force (BC): Total	Thousands	53,310	53,440	53,110	[2] 51,250	[3] 54,230
Male	do	36,130	35,280	34,590	[2] 33,720	[3] 40,950
Female	do	17,180	18,160	18,520	[2] 17,530	[3] 13,280
Employed [4]	do	51,360	51,730	51,560	[2] 50,570	[3] 46,930
Male	do	34,650	34,100	33,660	[2] 33,320	[3] 35,600
Female	do	16,710	17,630	17,900	[2] 17,250	[3] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	44,170	43,310	42,770	[2] 43,480	[3] 37,430
Agricultural	do	7,190	8,420	8,790	[2] 7,090	[3] 9,506
Unemployed	do	1,950	1,710	1,550	[2] 680	[3] 7,300
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total [4]	do	35,832	35,651	35,216	38,889	30,353
Manufacturing	do	11,873	11,947	11,941	15,632	10,078
Mining	do	802	792	718	806	845
Construction [5]	do	1,042	1,050	1,006	594	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,892	3,869	3,824	3,770	2,912
Trade	do	7,984	7,573	7,328	7,611	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	4,722	4,845	4,698	4,304	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,517	5,575	5,701	6,172	3,988
Military personnel	do	8,551	10,100	11,500	11,900	362
Production-worker employment: [6]						
Manufacturing	do	9,924	9,958	9,930	13,379	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	331	324	262	338	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,398	1,406	1,397	1,400	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	2,028	2,569	2,494	2,048	[7] 2,248
Hours and earnings						
Average weekly hours:						
Manufacturing	Hours		41.3	41.7	[8] 45.3	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do		44.8	33.0	[8] 42.6	27.1
Retail trade	do		40.0	40.4	[8] 39.4	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	37.2	37.2	38.7	39.4	32.4
Average weekly earnings:						
Manufacturing			$40.89	$41.04	[8] $46.85	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			$56.28	$39.98	[8] $49.66	$23.88
Retail trade			$28.88	$29.17	[8] $26.20	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$51.96	$51.93	$54.05	$53.48	$30.24
Average hourly earnings:						
Manufacturing			$0.990	$0.985	[8] $1.035	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			$1.265	$1.242	[8] $1.173	$0.886
Retail trade			$0.800	$0.792	[8] $0.736	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.396	$1.397	$1.396	$1.359	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			$0.950	$0.944	[8] $0.963	$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1941			$0.947	$0.941	[8] $0.912	$0.640
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)		[9] $4.40		$4.39	[9] $4.15	[9] $1.53
Industrial injuries and labor turn-over						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing, per million man-hours worked				[10] 18.3	[10] 18.2	15.4
Labor turn-over per 100 employees in manufacturing:						
Total separations		5.8	7.1	8.6	5.7	[7] 3.5
Quits		3.9	4.7	5.6	4.3	[7] 0.7
Lay-offs		1.3	1.7	2.3	0.5	[7] 2.7
Total accessions		6.8	8.7	8.6	5.1	[7] 2.8
Labor-management disputes						
Work stoppages beginning in month:						
Number		[11] 100	335	455	264	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	[11] 400	405	560	917	98
All work stoppages during month:						
Number of man-days idle	do	[11] 7,500	6,100	7,800	387	1,484
Man-days idle as percent of available working time		[11] 1.25	1.06	1.27	0.05	0.28

See footnotes at end of table.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]—Continued

Item	Unit or base period	1945			1944	1939: Average for year
		December	November	October	December	
Prices						
Consumers' price index (moderate income families in large cities): All items	1935–39=100	129.9	129.3	128.9	127.0	99.4
Foods	1935–39=100	141.4	140.1	139.3	137.4	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	149.4	148.7	148.3	142.8	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100	108.3			108.3	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	110.3	110.1	110.6	109.4	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	148.3	147.6	146.6	143.0	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	124.8	124.6	124.5	123.1	100.7
Retail food price index (large cities): All foods	1935–39=100	141.4	140.1	139.3	137.4	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	109.2	109.1	109.1	108.6	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	131.2	131.0	131.0	129.9	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	136.2	135.9	133.3	133.5	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	193.2	192.1	185.5	188.5	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	177.3	172.3	172.5	164.2	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	124.9	124.9	124.7	124.3	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	125.1	124.4	124.0	123.3	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	126.6	126.5	126.5	126.4	100.6
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100	107.1	106.8	105.9	104.7	77.1
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100	101.6	101.3	101.0	100.0	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100	100.5	100.2	100.1	98.9	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	131.5	131.1	127.3	125.5	65.3
Foods	1926=100	108.6	107.9	105.7	105.5	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments (BFDC)	Millions	$14,248	$13,075	$13,531	$14,405	[7] $7,005
Consumer expenditures for goods and services (BFDC)	do	[12] $29,395			[12] $26,646	[12] $16,651
Retail sales (BFDC)	do	$8,276	$7,039	$6,936	$7,426	[7] $4,539
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total	1935–39=100	162	167	165	230	109
Manufactures	1935–39=100	168	174	174	248	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	127	133	121	131	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons.	46,100	50,720	38,580	44,735	32,905
Carloadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	119	136	128	128	101
Electric energy (FPC): Total	Millions of kw.-hrs.	21,989	21,201	21,469	23,892	([13])
Utilities (production for public use)	do	18,101	17,358	17,671	19,602	[7] 11,832
Industrial establishments	do	3,888	3,843	3,798	4,290	([13])
Construction						
Construction expenditures	Millions	$580	$577	$573	334	[7] 512
Value of urban building construction started	do	$284	$261	$266	$74	([13])
New nonfarm family-dwelling units		28,700	31,300	29,800	10,800	[7] 41,200

[1] Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics unless otherwise indicated. Abbreviations used: BC (Bureau of the Census); ICC (Interstate Commerce Commission); BAE (Bureau of Agricultural Economics); BFDC (Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce); FR (Federal Reserve); BM (Bureau of Mines); FPC (Federal Power Commission). Most of the current figures are preliminary.

[2] Not comparable with October, November, and December 1945 figures because of a change adopted by the Bureau of the Census in July 1945 in sampling methods. (See Monthly Report on the Labor Force, September 1945.) Estimates for months prior to July 1945 are being revised.

[3] 10-month average—March to December 1940. (See footnote 2.)

[4] Excludes employees on public emergency work, these being included in unemployed civilian labor force. Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments differs from employment in civilian labor force mainly because of the inclusion in the latter of such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

[5] Includes workers employed by construction contractors and Federal force-account workers (nonmaintenance construction workers employed directly by the Federal Government). Other force-account nonmaintenance construction employment is included under manufacturing and the other groups.

[6] Reports in manufacturing and mining now relate to "production workers" instead of "wage earners" but with no appreciable effect on the employment estimates.

[7] December.

[8] November.

[9] January 1946, 1945, and 1939.

[10] September.

[11] Reports for December 1945 are incomplete but larger stoppages are included; workers involved and man-days idle are reasonably comparable with earlier months.

[12] Fourth quarter.

[13] Not available.

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City-Family Composition in Relation to Income, 1941 and 1944[1]

DURING 1944 nearly 3 million families and single persons living in cities received less than $1,000 income. Another 4 million had incomes between $1,000 and $2,000, making a total of 7 million city families and single persons with incomes below $2,000 in 1944, when family incomes reached their highest level in history. Families containing husband, wife, and one or more others made up about a fifth of this total and married couples living alone another fifth. Other families of two or more persons, most of whom had a woman as head, were slightly more numerous. Single persons living as civilians—1.9 million women and 800,000 men—comprised almost two-fifths of the 7 million with less than $2,000. Incomes in excess of $5,000, on the other hand, went mainly to the more than 3 million husband-wife families of three or more persons; some 600,000 couples, 400,000 other families of two or more, and 170,000 single persons (two-thirds of them men) also received more than $5,000.

Approximately half of all families and single persons living in cities in the United States in 1941 and 1944 included husband, wife, and at least one other person. Married couples living by themselves comprised about a fifth of all family units, and single men and women about a sixth. Other families of two or more persons—e. g., widows with children, brothers and sisters living together, etc.—made up the remainder of the urban civilian population.

According to the findings of two sample surveys conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, there was remarkably little change in these proportions between 1941 and 1944, despite the large number of persons in military service (table 1). The relative number of single men and of couples with young male heads of course declined somewhat, while the number of single women and of families with female heads increased. In 1946, with the discharge of men from military service, the distribution of the urban family population will probably resemble more closely that of 1941 than that of 1944.

[1] Prepared by Lenore A. Epstein and Ann S. Ritter in the Bureau's Cost of Living Division.
The data presented in this article are from the Survey of Spending and Saving in Wartime, 1941, and the Survey of Prices Paid by Consumers, 1944, conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For a brief description of the sampling procedure used in each survey and a comparison of the two samples, see appendix to Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 838. See section at end of present article for discussion of classification problems.

The relative number of families of different types is markedly different at high and low levels of income. In 1941, for example, single persons comprised 60 percent of all units receiving incomes under $500, and married couples with one or more others in the family only 3 percent. Nearly half of the low-income single persons were 60 years of age or older. At the opposite end of the income scale, less than 2 percent of all units were single persons, and families of three or more (including husband and wife) represented 78 percent. Couples with one or more other adults in the home and very large families were seldom found in the lowest income classes; they were relatively more numerous in the $3,000-and-over group than in the population at large.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of City Families in Specified Annual Total Money Income Classes,[1] by Type of Family, 1941 and 1944*

Family type	1944									
	All income classes	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 to $5,000	$5,000 and over
Single persons	16.0	72.1	36.7	39.3	23.5	16.5		4.5	2.3	3.9
Males	5.8	20.6	6.4	17.0	7.2	6.5		2.9	1.8	2.5
Under 30 years	.4	0	0	.9	0	1.1		0	1.0	0
30–60 years	3.6	7.4	2.7	11.6	4.6	4.3		2.3	.4	2.5
60 years and over	1.8	13.2	3.7	4.5	2.6	1.1		.6	.4	0
Females	10.2	51.5	30.3	22.3	16.3	10.0		1.6	.5	1.4
Under 30 years	1.8	1.5	1.8	.9	3.9	3.8		1.0	0	.7
30–60 years	5.5	19.1	16.6	15.2	11.1	5.7		0	.5	.7
60 years and over	2.9	30.9	11.9	6.2	1.3	.5		.6	0	0
Families of 2 or more persons	84.0	27.9	63.3	60.7	76.5	39.1	44.4	95.5	97.7	96.1
Male head, wife present	70.2	19.1	30.3	41.1	53.0	30.2	38.5	85.6	92.3	86.8
With no others	19.0	13.2	21.1	20.6	20.9	9.2	13.7	17.8	20.5	13.2
Head under 30 years	1.4	0	0	.9	2.0	1.4	1.0	.9	1.8	1.0
Head 30–60 years	11.5	1.4	3.7	4.5	11.1	5.1	9.2	13.4	16.4	10.4
Head 60 years and over	6.1	11.8	17.4	15.2	7.8	2.7	3.5	3.5	2.3	1.8
With others [2]	51.2	5.9	9.2	20.5	32.1	21.0	24.8	67.8	71.8	73.6
1 or 2 children, no others	20.7	1.5	1.8	12.5	13.8	10.2	14.8	32.5	25.9	16.4
3 or 4 children, no others	4.2	0	0	0	3.3	3.0	2.2	5.7	5.9	5.0
1 or 2 others, at least 1 adult	15.4	2.9	6.5	7.1	8.5	4.8	5.4	19.7	21.3	26.5
3 or 4 others, at least 1 adult	6.8	0	.9	.9	3.9	1.1	1.3	6.1	12.3	16.8
5 or more others	4.1	1.5	0	0	2.6	1.9	1.1	3.8	6.4	8.9
Other families	13.8	8.8	33.0	19.6	23.5	14.8		9.9	5.4	9.3
Male head	1.8	2.9	1.8	2.7	1.9	1.3		1.3	.9	2.9
Female head	12.0	5.9	31.2	16.9	21.6	13.5		8.6	4.5	6.4
Under 30 years	2.6	0	8.2	5.3	7.2	3.2		1.0	0	.4
30–60 years	6.7	4.4	14.7	8.9	10.5	7.6		5.4	3.6	3.9
60 years and over	2.7	1.5	8.3	2.7	3.9	2.7		2.2	.9	2.1
With children [3]	5.3	1.5	17.4	8.9	12.4	4.6		4.8	.9	1.4
With no children [3]	0.7	4.4	13.8	8.0	9.2	8.9		3.8	3.6	5.0
All families and single persons	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0	100.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of City Families in Specified Annual Total Money Income Classes,[1] by Type of Family, 1941 and 1944*—Continued

Family type	1941								
	All income classes	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $5,000	$5,000 and over
Single persons	17.1	60.0	37.8	22.2	9.5	5.4		1.2	1.7
Males	8.2	22.1	19.2	11.7	6.0	2.7		.6	0
Under 30 years	1.7	1.1	5.9	2.2	2.0	.3		0	0
30–60 years	3.4	6.3	6.4	6.1	3.0	1.5		.6	0
60 years and over	3.1	14.7	6.9	3.4	1.0	.9		0	0
Females	8.9	37.9	18.6	10.5	3.5	2.7		.6	1.7
Under 30 years	1.2	4.2	3.2	2.2	.5	0		0	0
30–60 years	4.7	20.0	8.5	6.1	2.0	1.8		.6	0
60 years and over	3.0	13.7	6.9	2.2	1.0	.9		0	1.7
Families of 2 or more persons	82.9	40.0	62.2	77.8	90.5	52.4	42.2	98.8	98.3
Male head, wife present	71.6	24.2	42.0	65.0	76.5	50.6	38.9	92.0	89.8
With no others	22.6	21.0	18.1	26.7	21.0	17.8	7.5	24.9	11.8
Head under 30 years	4.1	2.1	2.1	6.1	6.5	2.1	1.8	4.4	0
Head 30–60 years	12.5	8.4	6.4	12.3	11.0	11.8	4.8	17.4	8.5
Head 60 years and over	6.0	10.5	9.6	8.3	3.5	3.9	.9	3.1	3.3
With others [2]	49.0	3.2	23.9	38.3	55.5	32.8	31.4	67.1	78.0
1 or 2 children, no others	18.2	1.1	7.3	20.6	24.0	14.8	12.1	14.9	15.3
3 or 4 children, no others	4.3	0	2.7	5.0	8.5	3.0	.9	2.5	6.8
1 or 2 others, at least 1 adult	15.0	2.1	6.9	7.2	11.5	10.2	11.2	28.6	23.7
3 or 4 others, at least 1 adult	7.1	0	4.3	3.8	8.0	2.4	4.8	14.9	11.9
5 or more others	4.4	0	2.7	1.7	3.5	2.4	2.4	6.2	20.3
Other families	11.3	15.8	20.2	12.8	14.0	5.1		6.8	8.5
Male head	2.9	3.2	1.6	2.8	3.5	1.5		5.6	5.1
Female head	8.4	12.6	18.6	10.0	10.5	3.6		1.2	3.4
Under 30 years	1.0	3.2	2.1	2.2	.5	0		0	0
30–60 years	5.3	7.3	11.7	3.9	7.0	3.6		.6	1.7
60 years and over	2.1	2.1	4.8	3.9	3.0	0		.6	1.7
With children [2]	3.1	5.3	8.5	5.0	2.0	.9		0	1.7
With no children [2]	5.3	7.3	10.1	5.0	8.5	2.7		1.2	1.7
All families and single persons	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0

[1] Family income represents the sum of all types of money income received by family members during 1944 and 1941, respectively: Wage and salary earnings (less occupational expenses), entrepreneurial net income or withdrawals, and nonearned income from all sources, exclusive of inheritances, large gifts, and lump-sum insurance settlements.

[2] Persons 16 years of age and over are considered adults, those under 16 years, children.

The comparative income position of families of different types is shown most clearly by the distribution of each type by income class (table 2). Thus, in 1941, less than a tenth of the families containing husband, wife, and at least one other adult had incomes below $1,000, almost none received less than $500, and over a third had $3,000 or more. Couples with one to four children were heavily concentrated in the middle-income ranges, with about three-fifths receiving between $1,500 and $3,000. Nearly half of the families with a female head received less than $1,000 in 1941 and only 4 percent had $3,000 or more. Almost two-thirds of the single women received less than $1,000 current income, while barely 2 in every 100 had $3,000 or more.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of City Families of Specified Type by Annual Total Money Income,* [1] *1941 and 1944*

Family type	1944									
	All income classes	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 to $5,000	$5,000 and over
Single persons	100.0	18.8	15.4	17.0	13.8	23.5		5.4	1.9	4.2
Males	100.0	14.7	7.4	20.0	11.6	25.2		9.5	4.2	7.4
Under 30 years	100.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)		(2)	(2)	(2)
30–60 years	100.0	8.5	5.1	22.0	11.9	27.0		11.9	1.7	11.9
60 years and over	100.0	31.1	13.8	17.2	13.8	13.8		6.9	3.4	0.
Females	100.0	21.2	20.0	15.2	15.2	22.4		3.0	.6	2.4
Under 30	100.0	3.4	6.9	3.4	20.7	48.4		10.3	0	6.9
30–60 years	100.0	14.6	20.2	19.1	19.1	23.7		0	1.1	2.2
60 years and over	100.0	44.6	27.6	14.9	4.3	4.3		4.3	0	0
Families of 2 or more persons	100.0	1.4	5.0	5.0	8.6	10.6	12.1	21.9	15.7	19.7
Male head, wife present	100.0	1.1	2.9	4.0	7.1	9.8	12.5	23.5	17.8	21.3
With no others	100.0	2.9	7.4	7.4	10.3	11.0	16.5	18.1	14.5	11.9
Head under 30 years	100.0	0	0	4.3	13.0	21.9	17.4	13.0	17.4	13.0
Head 30–60 years	100.0	.5	2.1	2.7	9.1	10.2	18.2	22.4	19.3	15.5
Head 60 years and over	100.0	8.0	19.0	17.0	12.0	10.0	13.0	11.0	5.0	5.0
With others [3]	100.0	.5	1.2	2.8	5.9	9.4	11.0	25.5	19.0	24.7
1 or 2 children, no others	100.0	.3	.6	4.2	6.3	11.3	16.4	30.2	17.0	13.7
3 to 4 children, no others	100.0	0	0	0	7.2	15.9	11.6	26.2	18.8	20.3
1 or 2 others, at least 1 adult	100.0	.8	2.8	3.2	5.2	7.2	8.0	24.7	18.7	29.4
3 or 4 others, at least 1 adult	100.0	0	.9	.9	5.5	3.6	4.5	17.3	24.5	42.8
5 or more others	100.0	1.5	0	0	6.0	10.4	6.0	17.9	20.9	37.3
Other families	100.0	2.7	16.1	9.8	16.1	24.5		13.8	5.4	11.6
Male head	100.0	6.9	6.9	10.3	10.3	17.2		13.8	6.9	27.7
Female head	100.0	2.1	17.4	9.7	16.9	25.7		13.9	5.1	9.2
Under 30 years	100.0	0	21.4	14.3	26.2	28.6		7.1	0	2.4
30–60 years	100.0	2.8	14.7	9.2	14.7	25.6		15.6	7.3	10.1
60 years and over	100.0	2.3	20.5	6.8	13.6	22.8		15.9	4.5	13.6
With children [3]	100.0	1.1	21.9	11.5	21.9	19.5		17.2	2.3	4.6
With no children [3]	100.0	2.8	13.9	8.3	13.0	30.5		11.1	7.4	13.0

Family type	1941								
	All income classes	Under $500	$500 to $1,000	$1,000 to $1,500	$1,500 to $2,000	$2,000 to $2,500	$2,500 to $3,000	$3,000 to $5,000	$5,000 and over
Single persons	100.0	27.4	34.1	19.2	9.1	8.7		1.0	0.5
Males	100.0	21.0	36.0	21.0	12.0	9.0		1.0	0
Under 30 years	100.0	4.8	52.4	19.0	19.0	4.8		0	0
30–60 years	100.0	14.6	29.4	26.8	14.6	12.2		2.4	0
60 years and over	100.0	36.8	34.2	15.8	5.3	7.9		0	0
Females	100.0	33.4	32.4	17.6	6.5	8.3		.9	.9
Under 30	100.0	26.7	39.9	26.7	6.7	0.		0	0
30–60 years	100.0	33.3	28.1	19.3	7.0	10.5		1.8	0
60 years and over	100.0	36.1	36.1	11.1	5.6	8.3		0	2.8
Families of 2 or more persons	100.0	3.8	11.6	13.9	17.9	17.3	13.9	15.8	5.8
Male head, wife present	100.0	2.6	9.1	13.4	17.6	19.3	14.9	17.0	6.1
With no others	100.0	7.3	12.4	17.5	15.3	21.4	9.1	14.5	2.5
Head under 30 years	100.0	4.0	8.0	22.0	26.0	14.0	12.0	14.0	0
Head 30–60 years	100.0	5.3	7.9	14.5	14.5	25.6	10.5	18.4	3.3
Head 60 years and over	100.0	13.7	24.8	20.5	9.6	17.8	4.1	6.8	2.7
With others [3]	100.0	.5	7.6	11.6	18.6	18.3	17.5	18.2	7.7
1 or 2 children, no others	100.0	.5	6.3	16.7	21.6	22.0	18.0	10.8	4.1
3 to 4 children, no others	100.0	0	9.6	17.3	32.7	19.2	5.8	7.7	7.7
1 or 2 others, at least 1 adult	100.0	1.1	7.1	7.1	12.6	18.7	20.3	25.4	7.7
3 or 4 others, at least 1 adult	100.0	0	9.3	8.1	18.6	9.3	18.6	28.0	8.1
5 or more others	100.0	0	9.4	5.7	13.2	15.1	15.1	18.9	22.6
Other families	100.0	10.9	27.8	16.8	20.5	12.4		8.0	3.6
Male head	100.0	8.6	8.6	14.3	20.0	14.3		25.6	8.6
Female head	100.0	11.8	34.2	17.6	20.6	11.8		2.0	2.0
Under 30 years	100.0	25.0	33.4	33.3	8.3	0		0	0
30–60 years	100.0	10.9	34.3	10.9	21.9	18.8		1.6	1.6
60 years and over	100.0	7.7	34.7	26.9	23.1	0		3.8	3.8
With children [3]	100.0	13.2	42.1	23.7	10.5	7.9		0	2.6
With no children [3]	100.0	10.9	29.6	14.1	26.6	14.1		3.1	1.6

[1] See table 1, footnote 1.
[2] Number of cases too small for computation of distribution.
[3] Persons 16 years of age and over are considered adults, those under 16 years, children.

Between 1941 and 1944, when family incomes reached their highest level in history, practically every type of family improved its income position. Some gained more than others, however, as a result of the favorable employment situation. Large families with several potential earners had an advantage when the demand for war production made jobs easy to find. In 1944, half of the families containing husband, wife, and 3 or 4 others, at least one of whom was an adult, had incomes of $4,700 or more as compared with $2,630 in 1941 (table 3). Women under 60 years (both single persons and heads of families) improved their position greatly, probably because many jobs that had traditionally been filled by men were opened to women for the first time during the war-born labor shortage. Nearly two-thirds of the single women under 30 years received $2,000 or more in 1944, whereas substantially all such women had received less than $2,000 in 1941.

Elderly couples (husband 60 years or older, wife, and no others) made much smaller gains, presumably because many of them were unable to work and had to depend on fixed incomes such as pensions and annuities. In 1944 half of them received less than $1,750 as compared with $1,280 in 1941. As a group, single women over 60 years of age had as little income in 1944 as in 1941, with nearly three-fourths receiving below $1,000 in both periods.[2]

TABLE 3.—*Median Annual Money Incomes* [1] *of City Families of Different Types, 1941 and 1944*

Family type	Median income		Family type	Median income	
	1944	1941		1944	1941
All families and single persons	$3,000	$1,860	Families of two or more persons—Con.		
			Male head, wife present—Con.		
Single persons	1,470	830	With others [4]	$3,750	$2,320
Males	1,840	900	1 or 2 children, no others	3,360	2,110
Under 30 years	(2)	[3] 930	3 or 4 children, no others	3,580	1,850
30–60 years	2,090	[3] 1,110	1 or 2 others, at least 1 adult	3,920	2,580
60 years and over	[3] 1,150	[3] 690	3 or 4 others, at least 1 adult	4,700	2,630
Females	1,290	760	5 or more others	4,390	2,720
Under 30 years	[3] 2,300	[3] 790	Other families	2,180	1,340
30–60 years	1,400	800	Male head	[3] 2,920	[3] 1,960
60 years and over	600	[3] 690	Female head	2,120	1,110
Families of 2 or more persons	3,330	2,080	Under 30 years	[3] 1,770	[3] 870
Male head, wife present	3,530	2,190	30–60 years	2,250	1,210
With no others	2,830	1,920	60 years and over	[3] 2,300	[3] 1,140
Head under 30 years	[3] 2,810	1,810			
Head 30–60 years	3,320	2,150	With children [4]	1,850	[3] 940
Head 60 years and over	1,750	1,280	With no children [4]	[3] 2,320	1,330

[1] See table 1, footnote 1.
[2] Number of cases too small for computation of median.
[3] Fewer than 50 cases.
[4] Persons 16 years of age and over are considered adults, those under 16 years, children.

The changes in total income between 1941 and 1944 reflect greater earning power—among the employable age groups—but do not represent so great an increase in well-being as at first appears. Higher Federal income-tax rates made substantial inroads. Although in 1944 half the families of two or more received incomes of $3,330 as compared with $2,080 in 1941, after payment of personal taxes half of them

[2] The fact that half of the elderly single women had less than $600 income in 1944 as contrasted with $690 in 1941 may be due to sampling errors. It may be, however, that a larger proportion of elderly women were living alone in 1944, since sons or daughters who formerly lived with them were in military service.

received less than $2,950. For single persons living in cities, the median incomes compared as follows: 1941, $830; 1944, total income $1,470, income after taxes $1,310. Wartime excise taxes, price increases, and the virtual disappearance of many low-priced clothing and housefurnishings articles absorbed an additional share of the larger dollar incomes in 1944.

Classification of Families

Two problems of classification arose in tabulating the schedules for analysis of family types in relation to income. Decisions were made on an individual basis, taking into account all information yielded by the schedule.

The first problem arose with schedules that did not indicate clearly which member was the family head. One such case involved an elderly woman, not employed, and her daughter and son-in-law, employed. This presented two possibilities: It could be tabulated as a broken family, no children, female head over 60 years old, or as a couple with one other adult. In this case, although the elderly woman was listed as the head, there was no assurance that the daughter and husband had gone to live with her rather than that the mother had joined the couple's household. The family was classified as a couple with one adult.

Special treatment was necessary, also, in connection with part-period family members. They were more frequent in 1944 than in 1941 because of the departure of husbands, sons, or daughters for the armed services. In general, if an individual had been present 6 months or more, he was considered a family member for the year. However, if a married serviceman, for example, returned to his family late in the schedule period, he was usually included as a family member, since this obviously was the normal family composition. If he had left the family early in the schedule period, on the other hand, he was excluded from family membership and his earnings, if any, up to the time of his departure were subtracted from the family's income. If an individual was a family member only part of the year but was included in the family, the result was some understatement of income, since only his income while he was a family member was reported.

There are slight discrepancies, therefore, both in family size and in income between the figures in the accompanying tables and other reports based on the findings of the two surveys. The number of cases requiring special treatment was small, however, less than 1 percent of the total number sampled.

Effects of War Casualties on Economic Responsibilities of Women[1]

Summary

AMONG the readjustments incident to the end of the war is a largely permanent increase in the earning responsibilities placed on the women of American families. The war has directly affected women members of the families with deceased or disabled veterans. By June 1945 over 50,000 widows of veterans of World War II were receiving death pensions. To maintain an adequate standard of living many of these women may need to work to supplement their other income. Disability pensions were being paid by June to more than half a million disabled veterans, many of whom have wives and families they may be unable to support unaided, or may not be able to support at all. War casualties will also have indirect effects. The death or disability of hundreds of thousands of young men in the age groups in which they normally marry and undertake family responsibilities will result in many more young women remaining unmarried than otherwise would have done so. These women, in line with present custom, will usually be responsible for self-support, and in some cases for the support of others as well.

Extent of War Casualties

Figures issued by the War and Navy Departments at the time Japan surrendered showed a total of over 250,000 members of the armed forces killed and over 650,000 wounded (table 1). Deaths accounted for over a fifth of the more than a million casualties. When complete figures are available, the total number of battle deaths is expected to reach nearly 325,000. Allowance has to be made for deaths of those wounded in action and of those now carried on the rolls as missing.[2]

TABLE 1.—*Casualties of World War II, to August 1945* [1]

Item	Total		Army	Navy
	Number	Percent		
Total casualties	1,070,144	100.0	922,757	147,387
Killed	252,142	23.6	199,183	52,959
Wounded	651,169	60.8	570,997	80,172
Missing	44,215	4.1	33,653	10,562
Prisoners	122,618	11.5	118,924	3,694

[1] Data are from War Department Press Release of August 17, 1945, and Navy Department Press Release (Serial No. 440) of August 18, 1945.

Fortunately, casualties did not reach the levels feared. Nevertheless, war losses made an appreciable difference in the death rate. In peacetime, deaths in the population numbered about 1,400,000 a year.[3] The total expected war losses are almost a fourth of this.

[1] Prepared by Janet M. Hooks, Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.
[2] American Combat Losses in World War II, in Statistical Bulletin of Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., November 1945.
[3] Mortality by Marital Status by Age, Race, and Sex, Urban and Rural, United States, 1940 (U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Vital Statistics, Special Reports, Vol. 23, No. 2, July 3, 1945).

The average yearly war deaths during the war period were about 6 percent of the usual annual death rate. Although many of the wounded recover (356,331 of the Army wounded had recovered sufficiently to return to duty), some become permanently disabled to a greater or less degree. For the families and dependents of the men concerned, these casualties have serious and lasting implications.

Veterans' Pensions in Relation to Economic Needs of Families

That many men in the armed forces had dependents is demonstrated by the allowances payable to families of servicemen. These are payments made by the Government to wives, minor children, or divorced wives of enlisted men, or to parents, brothers, and sisters if actually dependent upon the enlisted man for substantial or chief support. A part of the allowance is charged against the pay of the enlisted man. As of June 30, 1944, 3,653,499 soldiers had 6,450,396 dependents receiving family allowances.[4] As, at that time, the total strength of the Army was approximately 7,900,000,[5] nearly half (46 percent) of the men therefore had important economic responsibilities.

In the event of death or disability of a serviceman the economic needs of dependents still exist, and veterans' pensions have been established to help meet them. As of June 30, 1945, dependents of soldiers were receiving 94,463 pensions on account of World War II service-connected deaths, and 536,541 veterans of that war were receiving pensions for service-connected disability.[6]

In 28 percent of the death-pension cases the dependents included a widow without children; in another 27 percent the dependents included a widow and children.[6] Rates of pension on account of death amount to $50 for a widow, $65 if she has one child, $78 if she has two children, and $13 for each additional child up to a total maximum of $100.[7] According to standard budgets, a woman living alone needed for adequate living expenditures, excluding taxes and war bonds, at least $1,370 in New York State in 1944[8] and $1,306 in San Francisco in 1945,[9] compared to the $600 provided by the pension. A family of three, consisting of an adult woman, a boy of 13, and a girl of 8, required at least $1,731 in San Francisco for items of consumption,[10] compared to the $936 payable as pension. To be sure, some of these families may also receive National Service life insurance, but even if the policy carried was at the maximum of $10,000, the

[4] Second Annual Report of Office of Dependency Benefits, Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1944 (pp. 34, 64-71).
[5] Manpower Statistics (War Manpower Commission), No. 20, July 1945.
[6] Data furnished by the Veterans' Administration in letter of October 9, 1945.
[7] U. S. Veterans' Administration Pamphlet No. 44: Veterans' Benefits; Information concerning monetary and other benefits available to persons who have served in the armed forces of the United States and to the dependents of such persons (Washington, 1944, p. 47). If pensions are paid to parents also, the total pensions may aggregate $150 a month for a single case.
[8] The Industrial Bulletin (New York State Department of Labor), November-December 1944 (p. 338).
[9] Wartime Budget for a Single Working Woman (Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics), March 1945.
[10] Wartime Budget for Three Income Levels (Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, 1945). The budget for a wage-earner family of four was adjusted by deducting expenditures for an adult man, and at the same time the family standard of living was lowered considerably by the elimination of expenditures for automobile, life insurance, and telephone. Amounts deducted were as follows: Share of meals at home, $194.81 (represents a reduction of 28 percent for man, with 10 percent added back for different buying methods); lunches, $30.50; clothing, $70.31; housing, $48.96 (represents a reduction of 12 percent on assumption that family moves from a five- to a four-room house; difference in median rents for a four-room and a five-room tenant-occupied house in San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area computed from U. S. Census of Housing, 1940 (Vol. III, Part 2, table O-3); telephone, $27.60; other household operation, $10.07 (12 percent reduction in light and fuel, house-cleaning supplies, stationery, and postage); automobile, $137.79; share of medical care, $44.76; life insurance, $113.38; share of cleaning supplies for personal care, $5.89; shaving supplies, $2.24; haircuts, $10.20; movies, $6.84; tobacco, $27.30; union dues, $34.74; incidentals, $13.00.

income would still be inadequate. The monthly payment of $55.10 [11] from such insurance would then bring the yearly income to $1,261 for a widow living alone and to $1,597 for a widow with two children.

The disability payments to veterans range from $11.50 per month for 10 percent disability to $115 a month for total disability.[12] These amounts are based on loss of earning capacity, without regard to financial responsibilities. Despite pensions and our far deeper and more pervasive sense of responsibility for devising the most satisfactory adjustment possible for a partially disabled veteran, it will in many cases be necessary for the wife or dependents to contribute to the money income of the family. Pensions of the 36,813 totally disabled veterans [6] are possibly sufficient, at $1,380 a year, for the minimum needs of the recipient, but veterans with families must rely upon those families if an adequate level of living is to be maintained.

Duration of Increased Economic Responsibility for Wives and Widows

The economic needs arising from war deaths and disabilities will continue over a long period of years. The average age of veterans with service-connected disability through June 30, 1945, was 28.8 years; three-fourths of them were under 34.4 years of age. For those on whose account death pensions were paid, the average age at death was 27.6; three-fourths were under 31.9 years of age.[13] The others in their families will therefore face many years of economic responsibility.

An examination of civil service appointments, for example, indicates that in spite of benefits paid, many wives or widows of veterans take jobs. In the period 1930–39—12 to 21 years after World War I—2,056 widows of veterans were appointed to civil service positions, in addition to 639 wives of veterans who themselves were unable to meet physical qualifications of Federal jobs.[14] From January 1, 1943, through September 30, 1945, 5,100 wives and widows of veterans of World War II were placed in Federal employment, as well as more than 4,700 wives and widows of veterans of World War I.[15]

Many servicemen's wives worked during the war. Of an estimated 3,250,000 married women with husbands in the armed forces in February 1944, 1,530,000 or 47 percent were in the labor force.[16] Some of them worked primarily from patriotic motives but many were compelled by economic pressures. Studies by the Women's Bureau during 1944–45 showed that, on the average, three-fifths of the employed servicemen's wives in 10 war centers planned to stop work when their husbands were demobilized. Roughly two-fifths, on the average, planned to continue indefinitely in the labor market. These latter would be joined by those of the other group meeting the unforeseen circumstances of death, disability, or unemployment of the ex-serviceman-husband.

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[6] Data furnished by the Veterans' Administration in letter of October 9, 1945.

[11] U. S. Veterans' Administration, op. cit. (p. 14).

[12] U. S. Veterans' Administration, op. cit. (pp. 45–46). Payments for specific disabilities may bring the maximum pension to $300 (Public Law 182, Chapter 369, 79th Congress, 1st Session [H. R. 3644] approved September 20, 1945).

[13] Medians and third quartiles, based on data furnished by the Veterans' Administration in letter of October 19, 1945.

[14] Annual Reports of U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1930–39.

[15] U. S. Civil Service Commission, Press release of October 26, 1945.

[16] Sources of Women Workers in Wartime (U. S. Census of Population, 1940, Series SS, No. 1, August 25, 1944); Marital Status of the Civilian Population: February 1944 (U. S. Census of Population, Series P–S No. 1, June 20, 1944); and unpublished Census data.

Effect of Accelerated Divorce Rate on Need to Work

Other women who will have unforeseen economic responsibilities are those whose marriages do not survive the circumstances and pressures of wartime. Though not the result of casualties, in a broader sense they may be considered as a consequence of war.

Before the war the divorce rate was 21.3 per hundred marriages.[17] The number of divorces is expected to be very high in the next few years, owing to the exceptionally great number of marriages from 1940 to 1943 and the postponement of divorces during the war period. More than that, however, the fact that many wartime marriages are undertaken in particularly unfavorable conditions is expected to raise the divorce rate to at least one in every three marriages. Short engagements, long separations, the motives underlying some of the marriages, and various other factors make for greater instability than normal. It has been estimated that divorces may total 461,000 in 1946, compared to 264,000 in 1940 and 192,000 in 1930.[18] However much this increase is deplored, the fact remains that the break-up of many of these marriages will mean that the wife will have to work.

A widowed or divorced woman is more likely to take paid work than is a woman whose marriage is unbroken. Although only 19 percent of all married women with husbands present in the household worked in 1944, over 32 percent of all widowed and divorced women worked.[19] Especially notable is the heavy responsibility for family support among the latter group. Studies made by the Women's Bureau in 1944–45 in 10 war-production areas showed, that, on the average, 34 percent of widowed and divorced women workers who lived in family groups were the sole earners in these family groups, compared to 12 percent each of the single and of the married women workers living in family groups.

Peacetime Marriage Prospects of Single Women

Women directly affected by the impact of war on marriage are not alone in having greater economic burdens to carry as a part of war's aftermath. Reduction in the numbers of marriageable men in the population and the serious disability of others operates to raise the numbers of women who will never marry and who must support themselves and in many cases other dependents as well.

The ratios of men and women among eligible single persons, as well as economic and psychological conditions, appear to have been controlling factors in the marriage rate and in the proportion of women married, as shown by marriage data since 1915.[20] The loss on the battlefields and the maiming of hundreds of thousands of young men, many of whom were single, will therefore affect the outlook for marriage of numbers of women. The proportion of single men who would have been expected to marry ranges from 93 percent of those 18 years of age to half of those 35 years old.[21]

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[17] The rate is based on the average number of marriages during the previous decade.

[18] See The Wartime Marriage Surplus (U. S. Census of Population, Series PM–1, No. 3, November 12, 1944) and Sociological and Statistical Analysis, by Kingsley Davis, in Law and Contemporary Problems, Summer 1944 (p. 700).

[19] U. S. Women's Bureau. Special Bulletin 20: Changes in Women's Employment During the War, by Mary Elizabeth Pidgeon (Washington, 1944, p. 28).

[20] The Wartime Marriage Surplus (U. S. Census of Population, 1940, Series PM–1, No. 3, November 12, 1944).

[21] Marriage Prospects of Single Men and Women, by Age (U. S. Census of Population, 1940, Series P–45, No. 10, November 21, 1945).

The number of eligible single males is also affected by the fact that some 100,000 servicemen have married foreign wives.[22]

Considerable interest has been aroused recently by the fact that the ratio of males to females in the population, influenced by declining immigration and changing mortality rate, has been decreasing ever since 1910, and that by mid-1944, when Army and Navy figures showed about 55,000 [23] killed, the numbers of males and females in the country were about equal. During the ensuing year this approximate balance changed to an excess of females in the population of about 230,000.[24] It is apparent that much of the surplus can be attributed to the 200,000 additional military deaths during 1944–45.

This surplus is thought by some people to foreshadow less opportunity for women to marry. Actually, as census experts point out, in spite of the decline in the sex ratio since 1910 the proportions of women who were married show an upward trend and the proportions who were single have dropped.

TABLE 2.—*Sex Ratio Compared with Proportions of Women Married and Single in the United States, 1910–45* [1]

Year	Ratio of males to females in the population of all ages	Proportion of women 15 years of age and over who were—	
		Married	Single
1910	106.0	58.9	29.7
1920	104.0	60.6	27.3
1930	102.5	61.1	26.4
1940	100.7	61.0	25.8
1944	100.0	63.1	23.8
1945	99.7		

[1] Data are from U. S. Census of Population, 1940, Vol. 2, Part I, table 4 (p. 19); Vol. 4, Part I, table 5 (p. 16); Series P-45, No. 1, January 24, 1945; Series P-S, No. 1, June 20, 1944; and Series P-46, No. 2, January 27, 1946.

It is the particular group affected by war casualties—a highly eligible group of men in the marrying years—rather than the change in the total sex ratio resulting from war deaths that has importance for women. Whatever the level of the marriage rates under future economic conditions after the exceptional marriage rates of the war years have passed, it is apparent that, had there been no war, the rate would have been higher and the character of some of the marriages different.

Importance of War Casualties Among Certain Groups of Unmarried Women

It has been pointed out that, in individual localities, marriage among women is more dependent on the supply of men available than marriage among men is dependent on the supply of women. That is, whether the ratio of men to 100 women is 120 or 95, only from 58 to 60 percent of the men are married; but among women the percentages married drop from more than 65 percent when the ratio is 120 to less than 56 when the ratio is 95.[25]

[22] New York Times, November 27, 1945.
[23] New York Times, June 30, 1944.
[24] U. S. Census of Population, Series P-46, No. 2, January 27, 1946.
[25] Factors Affecting the Marital Conditions of the Population, by W. F. Ogburn, in Publications of the American Sociological Society, Vol. 18, December 1923.

In 1940 there were more females than males in 80 out of 92 major cities in the United States.[26] War casualties added to other factors will increase the number of communities where this is true.

The situation is likely to be intensified for women to the extent that there are differences in war mortality rates among various social and economic groups in the male population. An analysis of 1940 census data shows that men and women tend to marry persons with schooling similar to their own, a tendency particularly noticeable among women. Forty-seven percent of all husbands who had gone to college had wives who also had gone to college, while 55 percent of wives with college backgrounds had husbands with college backgrounds.[27]

Dr. Ernest R. Groves points out that in World War I high enlistment and casualty rates among men with presumably superior capacities, together with the return to the general population of men rejected for military service, affected the marriage possibilities and careers of women with outstanding abilities.[28] Undoubtedly, many of the educated groups of women who otherwise would have married remained single. Others may have married less capable partners than if there had been no war.

This may be less true of World War II. A study of fatal casualties in St. Louis in the first 2 years of this war, for example, revealed no correlation between deaths and economic status or education.[29] The study did not, however, cover the latter part of the war when fatal casualties were more numerous; nor did it consider factors apart from casualties, such as wartime tendencies in education, that may affect marriage among certain groups of women. The war period accelerated the numbers of women entering educational institutions; at the same time fewer men were being educated, except for the training in technical skills afforded in the armed services.

The day is long past when the single woman can make a contribution to the community and find a means of support in unpaid work in the home of relatives. Data for February 1944 show that 55 percent of all single women 14 years of age and over were in the labor force. Of those 20 to 24 years, 87 percent were workers, while of those 25 to 34 years, 84 percent were workers.[30]

The situation likely to arise when there are heavy casualties was described early in the war as follows: "The war will undoubtedly produce a generation containing a relatively high proportion of women who will remain spinsters and many of whom may constitute a permanent increment to the Nation's labor force." [31] Casualties did not reach the levels anticipated when this statement appeared. Other factors are likely to overshadow the effects of casualties on the total proportions of married in each sex. Nevertheless, even if a small proportion of the women now of marriageable age remain unmarried in the years ahead, this proportion would have been still smaller if the war had not decimated the ranks of their male contemporaries. Many of the particular women affected will constitute part of the labor force because, more often than not, they must. Responsibility for support of self as well as of parents, brothers, sisters, and other relatives will fall on the shoulders of many such women.

[26] See U. S. Census of Population, 1940, Vol. 2, Part 1, table 50 (p. 115).
[27] Educational Selection in Marriage, in Statistical Bulletin of Metropolitan Life Insurance Co, September 1945.
[28] The American Woman, by Ernest R. Groves (New York, Emerson Books, Inc., 1944, p. 328).
[29] Class and Regional Selection in Fatal Casualties of the First 18–24 Months of World War II, by Janet Schaefer and Marjorie Allen, in Social Forces, December 1944 (p. 165).
[30] U. S. Census, Series SS, No. 1, August 25, 1944.
[31] Population and Vital Phenomena, by Philip M. Hauser, in American Journal of Sociology, November 1942 (p. 319).

Employment Situation in Foreign Countries

Part 2.—Liberated and Enemy Countries[1]

IN THE fall and early winter of 1945, the workers of the liberated and enemy countries in Europe and Asia were for the most part occupied in clearing away debris, rebuilding destroyed and damaged housing and essential public works (power plants, water works, sewer systems, transportation facilities), mining coal, cutting trees for fuel, and distributing such food as it had been possible for them to produce and import. Many people were employed in special reconstruction services, rehabilitating displaced persons and prisoners of war, training the large numbers of workers who must acquire the experience they did not get during the war years, and other special jobs which are the necessary aftermath of war.

Industrial activities were limited by lack of coal, equipment, materials, and certain types of skilled workers. Statistics on plant operation show that with some exceptions industrial plants were being operated far below capacity. Current reports indicate that varying proportions of the workers in these countries are not seeking work either because their health and morale have been seriously undermined by their war experiences or because they still have money, paid to them for war work, and know that it cannot buy them the goods they want. Many of the workers who were trained in sabotage during the German occupation find it particularly difficult to develop regular work habits and to approach prewar efficiency. In none of these countries has the labor force recovered from the effects of mobilization, displacement of population, or forced labor away from home.

The latest figures on unemployment show that in the autumn of 1945 in the liberated countries of western Europe (Belgium, France, Denmark, Netherlands, and Norway) the number of registered unemployed was very much smaller than in the 1930 depression period. In all these countries, some unemployment existed side by side with shortages of particular kinds of labor. In the U. S. Zone in Germany in December 22 percent of the labor force registered as unemployed and it was thought that the actual proportion was somewhat higher. In Italy and Japan, the number of unemployed estimated in the fall of 1945 was very large—2 million in Italy, 4 million in Japan.

The need to provide emergency employment and work incentives and to obtain labor for work of primary importance has led to direct control of the employment situation by a number of these governments. Some have issued decrees forbidding workers to leave their jobs without official authorization from an employment office; a provisional edict in Norway prohibited the closing of plants without an authorization. In some countries, the employers were required to obtain official permission to lay off workers. In most of these countries, the government is planning to take a more active part in the direction of

[1] Prepared by the Bureau's Foreign Labor Conditions Staff, under the direction of Faith M. Williams. The materials for this report were taken from official and other publications of the countries covered, and from reports of Military Government in Germany and of the following members of the U. S. Foreign Service: Belgium, Charles Sawyer, Leigh W. Hunt, and Smith Simpson; Czechoslovakia, Laurence A. Steinhardt and Susannah Mirick; Denmark, Richard A. Forsyth and John M. Hager; Finland, Maxwell M. Hamilton and Benjamin M. Hulley; France, Jefferson Caffery, C. H. Ducoté, C. D. Barnes, Jr., Richard Eldridge and H. C. O'Brien; Greece, K. L. Rankin and William Witman II; Italy, Alexander Kirk, John Clarke Adams, and E. R. Bagnoli; Netherlands, J. Webb Benton, Jesse F. Van Wickel, and Theodore A. Veenstra; Norway, Walter Galenson; Poland, Arthur Bliss Lane; Yugoslavia, Emil Kekich.

industrial production and in provision of employment than in the period before the war. In some of them, the nationalization of basic industries is under way. In others, policy for the government's part in planning for either production or employment has not been formulated.

Liberated and Enemy Europe

PREWAR TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

The measures of employment and unemployment available differ from country to country. None of them include all of those persons either out of work or having jobs, since they all relate to special groups.[2] The series available are useful in showing general trends and indicate that between 1935 and 1939 employment levels improved and unemployment tended to decline in the European countries.

Among these countries, those which were first to experience severe depression showed greater industrial activity by 1939 than those in which the trough was reached as late as 1935. Recorded employment in Denmark, Finland, Germany, Italy, Norway, and Poland reached the depression low before 1933 and exceeded 1929 levels by 1939.[3] The maximum unemployment had apparently been passed in 1934 or sooner in Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, Germany, and Norway. In France, where the trough of the depression, as reflected in the available statistics, occurred as late as 1935, the employment index in 1939 was much lower than in 1929. In the Netherlands, the index of employment had almost reached the 1929 level by 1939 but the proportion of insured who were unemployed was still large.

TABLE 1.—*Employment Levels in Specified European Countries, 1929 to 1939* [1]

Country	Index of employment (1929=100) [2]				
	Low year		1935	1939	Percent of increase, 1935–39
	Year	Index			
Denmark	1932	[3] 91.7	[3] 125.8	[3] 151.1	20.1
Finland	1932	76.6	105.4	122.6	16.3
France	1935	73.5	[4] 73.5	83.4	13.5
Germany	1932	71.1	[4] 90.6	[5] 116.5	28.6
Italy	1932	78.5	94.0	[6] 113.3	20.5
Netherlands	1935	84.2	[4] 84.2	[4] 99.0	17.6
Norway	1931	79.9	106.2	125.9	18.5
Poland	1932	62.3	77.1	[6] 102.0	32.3

[1] Source: International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1943–44, Montreal, 1945 (pp. 30–35).
[2] Indexes cover industry only, unless otherwise specified.
[3] 1931=100.
[4] Index covers mining, industry, commerce (and in some countries, agriculture).
[5] January to July 1939. Index covers mining, industry, commerce (and in some countries, agriculture).
[6] January to June 1939.

Austria and Czechoslovakia had not regained the 1929 level of employment prior to their absorption into the German Reich in 1938 and early 1939, respectively, although unemployment had been substantially reduced, particularly in Czechoslovakia, before the German occupation.

[2] They apply to insured unemployed trade-union members, or persons employed in establishments of given size or in the production of certain kinds of goods and services, for example.
[3] While the Danish employment index takes 1931 as a base year, it is probable that the 1939 level of 151.1 is equal to, if not higher than, the 1929 level.

In Poland, striking gains in industrial employment between 1935 and 1939 did not absorb the labor surplus. The increase in industrial activity continued to bring applicants to the employment offices. Meanwhile Polish seasonal immigration to Germany had greatly decreased.

Preparations for war played an important part in the employment gains which occurred between 1935 and 1939 in Germany, Italy, and Finland, and after the annexations, in Austria and the Sudetenland. Other factors were the increase in the Nazi and Fascist Party officialdom and the administrative bureaucracy. The practice of counting persons on public relief projects as regularly employed also contributed to the nominal decline in unemployment.

TABLE 2.—*Recorded Unemployment in Specified European Countries, 1929 to 1939*[1]

Country and type of worker	Maximum unemployment in the 1930's		1935	1939	Percent of change, 1935–39
	Year	Number			
Austria:					
Registered unemployed	1933	405,740	348,675	[2] 244,788	−29.8
Insured receiving benefit	1933	328,844	261,768	[2] 174,148	−33.5
Belgium—Insured wholly unemployed:					
Number	1934	182,855	165,469	[3] 156,686	−5.3
Percent of insured	1932 & 1934	19.0	17.9	[3] 15.5	−13.4
Czechoslovakia:					
Trade-unionists unemployed, on benefit:					
Number	1933	247,613	235,623	[4] 161,391	−31.5
Percent of covered trade-unionists	1934	17.4	15.9	[4] 9.1	−42.8
Applications for work	1933	738,267	686,269	[4] 335,518	−51.1
Denmark—Unemployed trade-unionists:					
Number	1932	99,508	76,195	88,924	+16.7
Percent of insured trade-unionists	1932	31.7	19.7	18.4	−6.6
Finland—Registered unemployed	1932	17,351	7,163	3,300	−53.9
France—Unemployed on relief	1936	431,897	426,931	361,930	−15.2
Germany—Registered unemployed	1932	5,575,492	2,151,039	118,915	−94.5
Netherlands:					
Insured unemployed:					
Number	1935	173,700	173,700	112,612	−35.2
Percent of total insured	1935	36.3	36.3	21.7	−40.2
Registered, wholly unemployed	1936	414,512	384,691	253,261	−34.2
Norway:					
Registered unemployed	1934	36,876	36,776	28,251	−23.2
Unemployed trade-unionists:					
Number	1938	19,230	14,783	16,789	+13.6
Percent of insured trade-unionists	1933	33.4	25.3	18.3	−27.7
Poland—Applications for work:					
Number	1939	414,584	381,935	[5] 414,584	+8.5
Percent of total social-insurance coverage	1935	16.7	16.7	14.7	−12.0

[1] Source: International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1943–44, 1945 (p. 56); and Monthly Labor Review, Washington, February 1939 (p. 1263).
[2] 1938.
[3] Computed from monthly Belgian figures.
[4] January–August 1938.
[5] January–June 1939.

INTRODUCTION OF LABOR CONTROLS

Enemy Countries and Satellites

Germany inaugurated labor-market controls in 1934. In 1935 work books were introduced and shortly thereafter measures were adopted for the conservation, training, and allocation of persons having scarce skills needed for carrying out the Four-Year Plan, begun at the end of 1936. Governmental organization was tightened in December 1938 when a Commissioner General for the German Economy was named, with supervision over the Ministries of Finance, Economics, Food and Agriculture, and Labor. In May 1939, the independent

office which managed Germany's network of public employment exchanges was absorbed into the Ministry of Labor.

Short-term compulsory labor was introduced in the summer of 1938 on the work of fortifying the western border; it was extended by decree of February 13, 1939, which laid the groundwork for wartime mobilization of the actual and potential labor force of the Greater Reich. Any resident of the Reich might be drafted for indefinite service on jobs designated as urgent by the Commissioner of the Four-Year Plan.

With the outbreak of war on September 1, 1939, employment offices in Germany were granted full authority to direct workers and new entrants into the labor market to specified jobs, to review and approve or disapprove hirings, dismissals, and transfers, to curtail employment deemed nonessential, and to "comb out" workers whom the employment office had decided to place elsewhere.

In Italy, an improvement in employment in the first years of World War II led to the relaxation in July 1940 of protective labor devices, such as the 40-hour week and restrictions on female employment, and the suspension in May 1941 of a public-works program. A system for the mobilization of civilian labor for work in agriculture was established in April 1941, under authorization of the act of May 24, 1940, which set standards for the work of civilians in wartime. Under the same authorization, civilian labor service was instituted for males 18 to 55 years of age by decree of February 26, 1942.

Finnish legislation of 1939 broadened that of 1930 by providing for requisitioning of citizens, aged 18 to 60 years, for national defense. A May 1942 law, superseding these provisions, made labor service compulsory in essential civilian industries. With certain exceptions, all Finnish citizens and aliens aged 18 to 55 years were liable unless reciprocal agreements provided for other arrangements. Compulsory labor in agriculture and forestry continued in Finland until October 31, 1944, and in some branches of forestry until November 30, 1944. Labor orders on defense work were canceled after September 30, 1944.

Germany's satellite countries—Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria—had compulsory labor legislation in force during the war. Hungary, in 1939, made every able-bodied person, between 14 and 70 years of age, subject to assignment to industrial or other useful work. Rumania, in 1941, decreed that useful work was the duty of every Rumanian and ordered all persons to carry work cards. Bulgaria, in 1940, ordered all civilians between 16 and 70 years of age to register for either agricultural or nonagricultural work and to be ready for allocation.

Invaded Countries

Following annexation of Austria (in March 1938) and the Sudetenland of Czechoslovakia (in October 1938), the German manpower controls were applied therein by successive laws and decrees, and employment offices in those regions were incorporated into the German system. Similar controls were introduced gradually under the Germans in other parts of Czechoslovakia, beginning with compulsory labor service for youths 16 to 25 years of age in the Protectorate of Bohemia-Moravia, in July 1939. In Poland, German employment offices were opened in the wake of the conquering armies, and German controls were promptly introduced. Compulsory labor service both

in Poland and in Germany was instituted, under particularly onerous conditions for the Polish and Jewish population and, beginning in the summer of 1940, mass round-ups in the Polish cities supplemented the more orderly forms of recruiting by employment offices. Yugoslavia and Greece suffered defeat early in the war, and economic conditions in those countries became so chaotic that German attempts at manpower controls were far from effective.

As tension in Europe grew in the late 1930's, other countries adopted legislation giving their governments certain authority over manpower in the event of need. The Belgian mobilization law permitting emergency labor controls was passed on June 16, 1937. France gave similar authorization, including that for requisitioning the services of labor, in July and November 1938. Like action was taken in the Netherlands in December 1939 for those parts of the country in which a state of war was proclaimed.

The immediate effect of the German occupation of Denmark in April 1940, and of the Netherlands, Belgium, and Northern France in May, was an increase in unemployment in those countries. The early controls introduced were for the purpose of reducing unemployment. Denmark provided for sharing of work by law of May 28, 1940. In the Netherlands, an order of June 13, 1940, prohibited the dismissal of workers, work stoppages, and the reduction of hours to less than 36 per week

In Norway, controls imposed in October 1940 (6 months after the invasion) prohibited the transfer of workers from agriculture, forestry, and shipping to other industry and restricted worker placement to the employment offices. Termination of employment in 19 groups of trades and industries was made dependent on labor-office approval in March 1941. Under the direction of the German authorities, centralization of employment-office services was imposed in France in October 1940 and in the Netherlands in September 1940, and existing centralization in Belgium was tightened in April 1941. In September 1941, Belgian coal miners were "frozen" in their jobs.

Compulsory labor service was first required of youths by the imposition of controls in Norway, the Netherlands, and France in the spring of 1941. In the Netherlands, compulsory labor service for adults was also required beginning in March 1941. Requisitioning of labor in Norway began in 1941 for temporary work in forestry and agriculture and also temporarily for work of national importance, but the general system was not introduced until 1942. France introduced requisitioning of labor for agriculture in December 1941.

PERIOD OF EXTENDED GERMAN MANPOWER CONTROL, 1942–44

In March 1942, the Nazi Party took complete control over the German labor market, and the full force of the Party machine was used to mobilize the labor force of Europe for the German war effort.

Reorganization of Labor-Market Controls

A Nazi Party official, Fritz Sauckel, became General Commissioner for Manpower, with the power to draft and allocate labor in all parts of the Greater Reich and the occupied countries. The employment-service system was reorganized to make its administrative subdivisions

correspond geographically with those covered by the Nazi Party districts (Gau), and the offices of regional director of the employment service and regional labor trustee were merged and subordinated to the regional chief of the Party (Gauleiter). Those branches of the Reich Ministry of Labor which had supervised labor supply, wages, and working conditions were transferred to the jurisdiction of the General Commissioner for Manpower.

At the same time that the administration was reorganized, industry was examined to determine which workers could be spared for jobs of higher priority. Decisions regarding priorities both in war and civilian industries (in the Reich and elsewhere) were made by the Commissioner General for Manpower in consultation with the Ministers of Munitions, Economics, Food and Agriculture, and the Army High Command. Requisitions for stated numbers of workers of specified skills which were to be supplied within given periods were transmitted by the commissioner to the district employment offices and apportioned to local offices according to labor-market conditions. The sources of labor supply for filling such requirements consisted of foreign workers and German workers whom employers were compelled to give up or who were obtained from among retired persons and women and young persons not previously employed.

In the occupied territories, the German Commissioner for Manpower established the following work priorities in September 1942: (1) The German armed forces; (2) the German occupying authorities; (3) the German civilian authorities; (4) German armament contracts; (5) agriculture and food industry; (6) other industrial work for Germany; and (7) industrial work for the respective occupied countries.

Utilization of Foreign Labor

German labor requirements were increasingly met by drawing on foreign labor, including prisoners of war. Workers were brought from "friendly, allied, or neutral countries" through contracts entered into with their Governments. Italy, Bulgaria, Croatia, the Netherlands, Spain, Slovakia, and Hungary undertook to supply agricultural workers. In eastern Europe—Poland and occupied parts of the Soviet Union—labor was conscripted by the Germans for work both at home and in Germany, at times by means of mass levies, round-ups, and deportations. German employment offices were established under the German military and civil authorities. In western Europe, recruitment methods were at first somewhat more indirect. Unemployment was created through closing plants regarded as nonessential, lengthening hours, and denial of unemployment compensation and sometimes ration cards to those made jobless, if they refused to accept directed employment. Increased rations were offered as an inducement to accept German employment.

In the Netherlands, Belgium, Northern France, Vichy France, and Norway, orders concerning labor were issued by the German military commanders to the various national labor department officials, and the local employment offices were utilized to the extent that cooperation could be obtained. Side by side with the local offices, however, the Germans operated their own recruiting agencies; in Belgium the local offices were required to refer applicants to the German offices. Mixed committees of Vichy French and German officials in France

supervised the recruiting of French labor for Germany to fill quotas set by the Germans. When this system failed to produce the desired results, teams of workers and supervisors were designated, by the German labor allocation officials, to be transferred to Germany, sometimes along with their machines and equipment. To release manpower, orders were issued to close industries not essential to the war effort in Belgium in March 1942 and in Norway in December 1942. The Netherlands Government was empowered by the Nazis to take such action in 1940, but did not do so until March 15, 1943. A concentration of French industry was attempted in 1942, and authorization to close commercial enterprises was given in May 1943.

Final Stages of Mobilization

The losses of the prolonged Russian campaign forced an intensification of manpower-control measures both in Germany and in the countries under her domination, during the winter of 1942–43. Measures providing for compulsory labor service by the able-bodied male and female adult population were effected in Vichy France, Belgium, Norway, and Germany, and were extended in the Netherlands, between late summer of 1942 and early spring of 1943. These measures were applied with increasing vigor, being translated into the calling up of young men by age classes for examination and assignment, both within the native country and to fill the quotas for foreign labor established by the German Commissioner General of Manpower. At the same time, the mobility of labor and the employer's freedom to dismiss workers were curtailed in France by acts of September 19, 1942, and March 27, 1943. In Norway, dismissals were further curtailed during the period of registration, to prevent evasion. As an aid to enforcement, work books were required in specified occupations in Norway by act of November 27, 1942, and in France after June 7, 1943, for all those liable for labor service. The concentration of enterprises in France in industry, and later in commerce yielded additional labor both to fill the German quotas directly and to replace workers who had been drafted from industry.

Like the occupied countries, Italy was subjected to pressure from Germany during this period. To make Italian labor available for removal to Germany, the metal industries were authorized to reduce the number of workers and to extend hours of work; the number of women employed at Turin, and no doubt also in other manufacturing centers, increased. At the time of Mussolini's fall, in July 1943, Italians working in less essential occupations in Germany were being exchanged for skilled Italian labor from the northern factories. In the spring of 1944, a general strike affecting some 4 million workers in the Neo-Fascist Republic, and the Allies' advance up the peninsula, caused the Germans to abandon Italy as a source of war materials and instead to intensify efforts to transport labor and industrial equipment to Germany. Up to July 1944, a cumulative total of 1.2 million Italian workers had gone to Germany.

Opposition to German Controls

Opposition to the German measures for the control of labor in invaded countries took various forms. Absenteeism and slow-downs were resorted to; in the Netherlands this situation became so acute that in September 1943 heavy fines were fixed for such conduct.

Rather than perform compulsory labor for Germany, workers resisted registration, shunned employment offices, joined the underground, and fled abroad. In France and Belgium, large numbers of young men went into hiding, joined the resistance movement, or escaped to neutral countries in order to evade the labor draft for Germany. In Denmark, the work sharing provided by law of May 1940 was used to conceal an average of 50,000 unemployed workers, to prevent recruitment for German projects. In Norway, when stocks of raw materials dwindled in 1942, workers were retained in industry on short time and at reduced wages, to avoid working for the Germans; attempted conscription of workers resulted in a large exodus to Sweden.

WARTIME DISPOSITION OF LABOR FORCE

Germany and Occupied Europe

Germany's wartime labor and economic controls were intended to mobilize the resources of practically the entire European continent for the German war effort. The workers of occupied and annexed territories were employed on tasks for the German military or civilian economy, either in their own countries or on German farms and in factories. Disruption of the labor force necessarily followed in all of these countries. The wide extent of German military operations and occupation of foreign territory also necessitated the transfer of German labor and supervisory personnel to perform many administrative, police, and industrial tasks outside German boundaries. For example, the Todt organization charged with constructing highways and fortifications in occupied countries was staffed by Germans and employed many skilled German workers, in addition to labor locally recruited or drafted.

In 1939, a high proportion of the German population (51 percent) was already classed as gainfully employed in the Greater Reich (including the Saar, Austria, and Sudetenland). Half of the gainfully occupied population consisted of wage earners; almost 20 percent were salaried employees; 16 percent were family workers; and 14 percent were employers and independent workers.

During World War II, Germany increased her armed forces from 1.25 million at the beginning of 1939 to 9.9 million 5 years later. Losses in killed and wounded exceeded 4.0 million. This meant a cumulative draft (according to German sources) of about 12 million. These withdrawals from the civilian labor force were compensated only in part by drawing in women, older persons, and young people of school age. The number of women employed in the old Reich increased from 5.7 million in 1937 to 7.1 million in 1940 (a gain of 24.5 percent) and the number employed in the Greater Reich rose from 8.3 million in 1940 to 9.5 million in 1942 (a 14.2-percent gain). As is shown in table 3, the number of foreign workers employed in Germany increased from an insignificant number in 1939 to more than 7 million in 1944, at which time the foreign workers constituted nearly 20 percent of the labor force of the Greater Reich (including the Saar, Sudetenland, Austria, but not including eastern annexations). The proportion of foreign workers was highest in industry, 29.3 percent, followed by 22.2 percent in agriculture.

Assuming that the figures given in the table for the armed forces do not to any substantial extent include duplication of those employed in civilian capacities, it appears that, in 1944, 25.5 percent of the native labor force, military plus civilian,[4] and 21.5 percent of the combined native plus foreign labor force was under arms.[5]

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Manpower in Germany (Boundaries as of September 1, 1939). by Origin and Occupation, 1939, 1942, and 1944* [1]

Gainfully occupied	1939		1942				
	Total		Total		Number (in thousands)		Percent foreign
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Native	Foreign [2]	
All industries	39,416	100.0	35,294	100.0	31,157	4,137	11.7
Agriculture	11,225	28.5	11,230	31.8	9,252	1,978	17.6
Industry and transport	18,638	47.3	15,714	44.6	13,836	1,878	12.0
Industry	10,946	27.8	9,771	27.7	8,370	1,401	14.3
Handicrafts	5,336	13.5	3,503	9.9	3,207	296	8.4
Transport	2,125	5.4	2,235	6.4	2,064	171	7.7
Power	231	.6	205	.6	195	10	4.9
Distribution	4,603	11.7	3,219	9.1	3,124	95	3.0
Administration and services	2,677	6.8	2,421	6.9	2,373	48	2.0
Armed services administration	691	1.7	1,244	3.5	1,184	60	4.8
Domestic	1,582	4.0	1,466	4.1	1,388	78	5.3
Armed forces (January 1)	[3] 1,250	------	[3] 7,800	------	------	------	------

Gainfully occupied	1944				
	Total		Number (in thousands)		Percent foreign
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Native	Foreign [2]	
All industries	36,112	100.0	28,984	7,128	19.8
Agriculture	11,186	31.0	8,708	2,478	22.2
Industry and transport	16,621	46.0	12,489	4,132	24.9
Industry	10,802	29.9	7,640	3,162	29.3
Handicrafts	3,282	9.1	2,745	537	16.4
Transport	2,334	6.5	1,927	407	17.4
Power	203	.5	177	26	12.8
Distribution	2,867	8.0	2,679	188	6.6
Administration and services	2,322	6.4	2,228	94	4.0
Armed services administration	1,457	4.0	1,294	163	1.1
Domestic	1,379	3.8	1,307	72	5.2
Homework	280	.8	279	1	.4
Armed forces (January 1)	[3] 9,900	----------	----------	----------	----------

[1] German official statistics compiled by U. S. Strategic Bombing Survey. Territory includes prewar Reich, Austria, Sudetenland and Saar, but not the Eastern annexations.
[2] Includes prisoners of war and Jews.
[3] Estimated by U. S. War Department.

Estimates of the distribution of foreign workers in Germany are shown in table 4, by nationality groups, for 1942 and 1944. The data include prisoner-of-war labor, the largest groups of which were from the U.S.S.R., Poland, and France.

In addition to the drain on labor in western Europe caused by the withdrawal of workers for employment in Germany, reductions in the

[4] I. e., 9,900,000 of 38,884,000 (native labor force 28,984,000, plus armed forces 9,900,000).
[5] I. e., 9,900,000 of 46,012,000 (native labor force 28,984,000, plus foreign labor force 7,128,000, plus 9,900,000).

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Foreign Workers Employed in "Greater Germany" in October 1942 and January 1944* [1]

Type of worker	Estimated number (in thousands)		Type of worker	Estimated number (in thousands)	
	October 1942	January 1944		October 1942	January 1944
All countries	5,209	8,671	France	1,028	1,970
Civilian workers	3,579	6,450	Civilian workers	93	1,100
Employed prisoners of war	1,629	2,221	Employed prisoners of war [2]	935	870
Poland	1,156	1,456	U.S.S.R. [3]	1,648	3,000
Civilian workers	1,122	1,400	Civilian workers	1,193	2,000
Employed prisoners of war [2]	34	56	Employed prisoners of war	455	1,000
Netherlands: Civilian workers	139	350	Italy		350
Belgium	178	530	Civilian workers	205	180
Civilian workers	123	500	Employed prisoners of war		170
Employed prisoners of war	556	30	Other countries	709	1,015
			Civilian workers	704	920
			Employed prisoners of war	149	95

[1] Source: 1942, Germany, General Commissioner of Manpower, Arbeitseinsatz, November 20, 1942; 1944, International Labor Office, The Exploitation of Foreign Labor by Germany, Montreal, 1945, Appendix IV.
[2] Some prisoners of war were released for work in Germany as civilians and are included under civilian workers.
[3] Includes certain groups of persons who were living in Poland before 1939.

work force occurred owing to the number of persons taken prisoner and because many persons avoided any employment that might benefit Germany. This cumulative reduction in the labor force was offset in part by entrants into paid employment and by persons sent out from Germany to work in conquered countries. Statistics on the wartime labor force are lacking for most of the countries covered; however, a few statistics showing employment trends are available for Denmark, Norway, and Finland.

Denmark.—In Denmark, farm employment decreased during the German occupation by 30,000 (10 percent) from the prewar total, but no material changes occurred in the number of fishermen. Employment in local transportation increased as a result of the requirements of the German army. The total reported manufacturing employment rose between 1939 and 1945, although the index of production dropped, as shown in table 5. This may have resulted from less efficient work, the greater time consumed in producing wartime substitute goods, and the sharing of work already mentioned.

TABLE 5.—*Index of Production and Number of Workers Employed in Denmark in 1939 and 1943, by Industry*

Industry	Index of production (1935=100)		Number of workers employed	
	1939	1943	1939	1943
All industries	117	96	188,434	196,975
Food and beverage industry	111	95	33,247	33,863
Textile industry	117	62	18,349	17,232
Confectionery industry	117	74	24,871	23,068
Leather and shoe industry	113	116	6,986	8,811
Wood manufacturing	109	138	9,161	12,872
Stone, clay, sand, cement, and ceramic industry	99	96	12,179	13,765
Iron and metal industry [1]	134	105	57,681	59,487
Chemicals	111	92	25,960	27,877

[1] This group includes shipyards, machine manufacturing, electrotechnical plants, motor, radio, and telephone manufacturing, and other factories using iron and metals as the most important raw materials.

Norway.—Although unemployment rose in Norway during the winter of 1940–41, only a few hundred workers utilized the agreement of December 1940 authorizing them to take work in Germany. (The number of Norwegian workers in Germany in January 1944 was estimated at less than 2,000.) Unemployment reached its maximum in Norway in the spring of 1941 but by the autumn of that year shortages of labor were noted in forestry and other essential work because of the large number of workers engaged in construction for the German occupation forces and in the production of goods substituted for imports. Employment in manufacturing remained fairly constant in Norway throughout the war; decreases in commercial employment were offset by an increase in land transport. Employment in agriculture and fishing dropped by about 30,000 workers. The annual increase in the labor force during 1939–45 averaged about two-fifths that in 1935–39.

Finland.—In Finland the wartime disposition of labor in various industrial branches was as follows:

	Workers at beginning of war	*Workers at end of war*
Mining and ore dressing	600	2, 600
Foundries	1, 900	3, 700
Engineering	41, 000	53, 000
Stove, clay, glassware, and peat	13, 500	9, 900
Chemicals	2, 900	5, 800
Leather, rubber, etc	11, 800	9, 200
Textiles and clothing	35, 000	26, 500
Paper, pulp, and timber	44, 000	33, 000
Food, drinks, tobacco, etc	13, 900	14, 700
Lighting and power transmission	3, 100	3, 400
Printing	6, 300	6, 000

THE SITUATION IN 1945

The end of war found the belligerent countries in varying stages of economic collapse; every country was faced with an abnormal and dislocated labor force which was heavily taxed by the burden of reconstruction and the resumption of its customary peacetime employment. Unemployment existed side by side with shortages of particular kinds of labor; efficiency and productivity of labor had been reduced by malnutrition, demoralization, the failure of money incentives, and lack of equipment. The German system of employment controls was abandoned in some countries upon liberation, but in others some of its features were retained and adapted to existing needs.

Western Countries

Belgium.—On the return of the Belgian Government at the time of liberation in September 1944, Belgium faced a problem of reconstruction not only for civilian production but also for supplying the Allied forces which were operating through Belgium to the east. Employment provided by the Allied military authorities, partially through the reconstituted Belgian employment-office system, rose to more than 140,000 by June 1945. Meanwhile, the Belgian Army was reorganized and more than 250,000 Belgian prisoners and deportees, of whom possibly 140,000 were industrial workers, were being repatriated. By November, 72,000 of the latter had reentered regular employment. The Government prepared for possible unemployment by establishing a broadened unemployment-compensation system and

a retraining program. The reported number of wholly and partially unemployed who were registered declined during 1945, as is indicated in the tabulation below.

	Number		Number
January	379, 266	June	174, 233
February	325, 191	July	185, 092
March	221, 992	August	175, 036
April	191, 546		
May	183, 644	November[1]	97, 479

[1] Week ending November 10.

In the summer and autumn of 1944, the Belgian Government ordered the liquidation of various economic control organizations established under the German rule and the de-nazification of the National Placement and Unemployment Office. Although plans to mobilize essential industries and freeze all civilian workers to their jobs were authorized in April 1945, they had not been carried out by September. At that time, power plants were running at 80 percent of normal; coal mines, inland waterways, and textile mills at almost 60 percent; and railways and heavy industry at 30 to 40 percent. This was a considerable improvement over January 1945.

France.—The resumption of civilian employment in France involved the repair of vast material damages and the readjustment of a labor force which had been dislocated by forced migration, unemployment, and loss of skills. To deal with essential phases of national reconstruction, government ministries were created for reconstruction, industrial production, national economy, agriculture and food supply, and population. Most of the displaced workers had been repatriated by early autumn 1945, but few could be expected to work efficiently for some time. Training courses for the building and other industries with acute shortages were instituted. By November 1944, some 50,000 prisoners of war had been put to work. By September 1945, more than 570,000 prisoners were distributed as follows: Some 150,000 in agriculture; 50,000 each in stone breaking and clearance work; 30,000 in mining; and the remainder in the transport, the chemical, and iron and metal industries. In coal mining, employment increased from 35,000 in the first quarter of 1945 to 177,000 in the third quarter.

Some improvement in employment conditions in France during 1945 is reflected in recorded unemployment under the unemployment funds and special wage-compensation legislation of January 8 and May 20, 1944. This special legislation provided compensation based on wages lost by workers who were partially or wholly unemployed because of war destruction in late 1943 and early 1944. As possibilities of employment were developed early in 1945, the wage-loss benefits were withdrawn from workers in various regions and various industries.

	Number of unemployed receiving benefits from—	
	Unemployment funds	Wage-loss legislation
1944:		
October	------	564, 900
November	19, 400	495, 650
December	24, 000	444, 400
1945:		
January	30, 000	[1] 388, 000
February	26, 000	[1] 379, 700
March	10, 865	[1] 259, 350
April	16, 304	[1] 156, 750
May	13, 668	[1] 15, 390
June	11, 679	[2] 14, 020

[1] End of month. [2] 15th of month.

By December 1945, French coal mines were operating at 95 percent of prewar capacity, but the coal shortage was still serious because of the low level of imports. The general index of industrial production was placed by a report of the Ministry of Information at 13 percent of prewar in September 1944, at 35 percent in January 1945, 42 percent in May, and 45 percent in June 1945. Shortages of raw materials and deterioration in industrial plant during the war, as well as coal shortages, have continued to retard production.

Certain controls over industry and employment instituted by the Vichy Government were removed after liberation, among them the Labor Charter Law of October 1941, with its compulsory syndicalism, and part of the legislation of August 16, 1941, on industrial production (by ordinances of the Provisional Government of July 27 and September 26, 1944). Because manpower needs for reconstruction were great, the act of 1938 for control of labor in wartime was not repealed. An ordinance of July 3, 1944, retained the general structure of labor inspection and manpower services developed since 1940 and established regional and departmental labor offices, with directors of manpower to coordinate the work of the offices. Under this and a later ordinance (May 24, 1945), all workers and employers were required to notify their local offices regarding employment needs and positions available, respectively. In November 1944, measures were approved to permit governmental use of workers unemployed because of immobilization of industry by the war (then numbering some 600,000) in the repair of communications, clearing away debris, etc., and an order of February 2 provided for the transfer of unemployed male workers. In an ordinance of May 1, 1945, the Provisional Government required former employers to reengage returned prisoners, demobilized soldiers, political prisoners, deportees, and members of the resistance movement, and other specified workers, and guaranteed wages during 6 months either from the employer or the State.

Netherlands.—The Netherlands Government issued decrees in August and September 1944 before its return from exile, providing for the abolition of the Nazi-inspired labor service and labor front. Provision was also made for public projects to furnish employment, for wage subsidy in projects tending to increase employment, and for a broadened unemployment-benefit system.[6] A coordinating committee in the liberated areas of the Netherlands prevented widespread unemployment by forbidding the dismissal of workers; by "freezing" workers to their jobs; and by placing workers on part-time employment.

When it appeared that a shortage of labor in several industries resulted in part from a lack of incentives, registration was instituted in the autumn of 1945, and unemployment benefits were to be withdrawn if the worker or any member of his household was not registered and willing to accept suitable work. Withdrawal of the currency in circulation and the blocking of bank accounts in September 1945 resulted in the registration for employment of approximately 15,000 black-market operators. Total unemployment dropped from 112,622 (excluding the "black marketeers") on June 30, 1945, to 80,000 (including them) in September, but on September 30, 98,000 were employed part time, receiving "waiting pay." Former Dutch Nazis interned in prison camps were employed by private enterprises, and

[6] See Monthly Labor Review, issue of June 1945 (p. 1214).

their wages were turned over to the State. By decree of October 5, 1945, termination of employment was forbidden without the consent of the director of the district labor bureau; some exceptions were allowed.

Denmark.—Employment in Denmark in early 1945 was restricted by a greater scarcity of raw materials than at any other time during the 5-year period of occupation. The number of workers sharing work increased from an average of 50,000 during 1942–44 to 101,400 in April 1945.[7] The discontinuance of Wehrmacht construction in Denmark and the cancellation of industrial orders for delivery to Germany also adversely affected industrial employment in Denmark before the German collapse. At the time of liberation, the number of Danish workers employed on Wehrmacht fortification works had dropped to about 10,000 and the number of Danish workers employed in Germany and Norway had decreased to about 5,000. The majority of the workers affected by the war conditions were absorbed into agriculture, fuel production, and other seasonal enterprises. Stocks of raw materials which had been held for German account were released for other purposes after the liberation and helped to maintain Danish industry during the first months of the transition period. Only a limited number of requests had been made, at latest report, for assistance under the extraordinary unemployment-relief measures which became effective on April 1, 1945.

Norway.—A Labor Directorate was established in Norway, following liberation, to coordinate the use of manpower through temporary management of the employment offices and the execution of measures to forestall and remedy unemployment. A provisional edict required the authorization of the Labor Directorate, in order to quit work or close an enterprise. The Directorate first attempted to stimulate employment in agriculture, forestry, and other industries which could give immediate employment, and 25 million kroner was appropriated for clearing, repair, and road work to employ those persons who previously had done work for the Germans which did not in itself bar them from employment after liberation. About 90,000 persons were engaged directly in German work at the time of liberation in 1945. A considerable number of workers returned from hiding to their former employment. Others were not yet seeking work because they wanted protracted vacations, or because of their distrust of labor offices which had been Nazi-controlled, or their unwillingness to work for pay in a currency in which they had little faith.[8] Others were suspended from the labor force as former Nazi collaborators. Beginning with July, the monthly employment increase rose from 1,800 to 11,600 in October.

Other Invaded Countries

Unemployment was being held at a minimum in Czechoslovakia toward the end of 1945. Compulsory labor service was introduced into that country in September and October 1945, through two decrees. The first decree affected all able-bodied men from 14 to 60 years of age and women from 15 to 50, of German and Hungarian origin who had lost their Czechoslovak citizenship, and of Slavic nationality who had

[7] Thus, partial employment was provided for the equivalent of 15,000 full-time unemployed workers during 1942–44 and of 31,300 in April 1945. This reduced the number of unemployed recorded.

[8] The Norwegian Government on September 8, 1945, inaugurated a monetary and financial reconstruction program which included the exchange of old bank notes for new currency.

applied for German or Hungarian citizenship during the occupation. The second decree affected Czechoslovak nationals (men from 16 to 55 and women from 18 to 45) and was declared to be a temporary measure.

Several factors accounted for the absence of unemployment in Poland in late 1945; these were the high wartime mortality, the large number of Polish nationals remaining in other countries, and the current transfer of 3.5 million Germans from Poland to Germany.

In the second week of October 1945, the Polish Government, in order to utilize the available manpower most advantageously for reconstruction, promulgated its most sweeping decree providing for the registration for compulsory labor of all Polish nationals (men 18 to 55 years of age and women 18 to 45). The decree exempted from compulsory registration at Government employment offices persons in military service, State and local officials, professional persons, the clergy, and persons working in agricultural, forest, and stock-breeding establishments.

Registered persons may be assigned by the employment offices to suitable jobs anywhere in the country for a period not exceeding 2 years. Registrants are to be offered jobs in their specialties and to be allowed to select one of several localities where they might be sent. In October 1945, the following registrants were exempt from induction for labor: Students in high schools and universities; the physically disabled; expectant mothers and mothers with at least one child under 14; owners and employees of industrial, commercial, and cooperative establishments useful to local and national economy; and teachers in private schools. Exempt also are the wives of men not subject to labor draft.

Enemy Countries and Satellites

In the months preceding the collapse, German industry was unable to utilize fully the labor force at its disposal. Following the surrender of Germany, industry, transportation, and distribution were brought almost to a standstill. Foreign laborers, who constituted 20 percent of the labor force, quit work.

Efforts by the Allied occupying forces to reestablish economic activity in Germany during the first 6 months of the occupation centered upon measures necessary for military security, for the rehabilitation of the liberated areas, and the displaced nationals of those areas. Forty-four percent of the manufacturing plants (representing 10 to 12 percent of the plant capacity in the United States Zone) were operating in December 1945. Figures are not available for the other zones.

German wartime manpower controls were continued in effect with certain important modifications; foreign workers were relieved of the compulsion to work and were repatriated as fast as possible. Discrimination because of race or national origin was ordered abolished; in some places discrimination was reversed and Nazis were required to report for the most disagreeable jobs. General registrations of the adult population were ordered in all zones, coordinated with the monthly issuance of ration cards. Compulsory labor may be ordered on any project deemed necessary either for military or civilian purposes, military needs receiving the first priority. Half a million ex-German soldiers organized in German service units have been employed in the United States Zone to perform necessary tasks connected

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with building, road repair, and woodcutting. Labor controls for all zones were codified and promulgated by the Allied Control Council on January 17, 1946.

Discussions held by the four occupying powers in September 1945 stressed the need for uniform statistics on employment and unemployment and for uniform methods of registering, allocating, and controlling labor.

War and defeat left a highly abnormal German labor force, ill-adapted to the tasks on hand, as it contained a high proportion of women, old people, and white-collar workers (particularly in the cities). Consequently, critical labor shortages in essential industries existed side by side with unemployment. Prisoners of war and disarmed enemy forces having the necessary skills for building trades, coal mining, and agriculture were given priority releases by the British and American armies of occupation. To increase the output of coal, badly needed for the European economy, the rations of coal miners were increased, feeding on the job was undertaken, and recruitment for coal-mine work among displaced persons was instituted. In some places, training courses for the building trades were started.

The September unemployment rate was 20.3 percent in the American Zone—13 percent among males and 28 percent among females. In December it was 10 percent higher. The results of the registration, however, are believed to understate the situation. The employment figures are believed to be padded by employers reporting excess workers because they were hoarding workers for future employment, or to assist workers to obtain higher rations or to escape compulsory labor. All those employed on public work-relief projects were also included. Considerable numbers failed to register because of transportation difficulties and because of the low purchasing power of wages and their dependence on home-grown foods owing to the general food shortages.

In Italy, extraordinary industrial damage and inactivity and unemployment resulted from the use of the peninsula as a base of supplies and a battleground from the summer of 1943 to the German surrender in the spring of 1945. In southern Italy, a survey showed that employment in industrial establishments having more than 10 workers each dropped more than one-half between 1939 and September 1944; of those listed as employed 42.3 percent were working full time, 47.9 percent were partially employed, and 9.8 percent were totally inactive (although their names were carried on the pay rolls).

After the German collapse in northern Italy in the spring of 1945, comparatively little damage of industrial plants was found. Unemployment was estimated later in the year as totaling one million or more. A plan adopted in June 1945 in northern Italy forbade the dismissal of workers in industry and required part payment for idle time of those partially employed. The plan provided that the Government would assume part of the cost of payments for idle time. It was continued, with modifications, until October 15, 1945, when legislation was pending for further continuance through December 31, 1945.

The number of officially registered unemployed under the general Italian unemployment-compensation system exceeded 700,000 in

September 1945. Total unemployment in November was estimated at 2 million.

As the Allies advanced up the Italian peninsula in 1944 and 1945, the Allied Military Government and subsequently the Allied Control Commission handled various manpower problems, including employment and the abolition of Fascist labor organization and controls. An adequate supply of labor was furnished to the Allied Forces, and regional and Provincial labor offices were established to perform various functions, including those of employment. The Italian Government at Rome abolished the Fascist corporations and established freedom for labor to organize and seek employment.

In Finland, fear of unemployment following the armistice in September 1944 proved unfounded. The metal and engineering industries were able to utilize all available skilled labor during the reconversion, and the greater part of the half-million men demobilized from war service returned to farming. During the first quarter of 1945, 77,492 workers were employed in industry, 3,518 in construction, 37,068 in State employment, and 11,947 in municipal employment. A shortage of labor was noted in industries producing for reparations deliveries, export, and the supply of fuel and semifabricated materials. Skilled and semiskilled workers returned only slowly to their previous types of work, and the abolition of the national-service regulation left no means of directing the transfer of labor. A measure authorizing the Government to recruit idle labor for work in factories and forests and on farms was under preparation early in 1946.

POSTWAR PROBLEMS AND PLANS

Postwar planning for the employment and the full utilization of the labor force in the liberated and enemy countries is complicated by uncertainty as to the composition and size of the labor force that will be seeking work. There has not yet been time to calculate the effect of such factors as war casualties, population shifts, and changes in territorial limits, or to work out ways of attracting needed foreign labor and of shifting surplus workers to other nations.

Certain European countries anticipated a need for immigrant labor, while others had surpluses for emigration. Belgium had a plan to obtain needed skilled labor by importing foreign workers, especially in the coal industry, but it had not developed very fully up to September 1945.[9] In France, negotiations were under way in the autumn of 1945 for the importation of Italian workers, and in November the Minister of Population described a policy which would not only encourage an increased birth rate but also permit immigration and a speedier naturalization of foreign workers. In Italy, the employment of prisoners of war has been opposed by the Government and the General Confederation of Labor because of unemployment. When Italian emigration to France was being discussed in the autumn of 1945, the C. G. I. L. agreed to it on the ground of necessity, provided, however, that the emigrants were guaranteed the same treatment as French workers and would receive social benefits as from the Italian system. Ministers of Social Affairs of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden, at a conference held in September 1945,

[9] At the end of July 1945, the total number of foreign workers registered in Belgian coal mines was 20,015, including German prisoners of war, some Poles, Italians, French, and Czechoslovakians.

agreed to draft a convention to establish a common labor market, for ratification by their Governments. About 2.5 million Germans were to be moved out of Czechoslovakia by August 1, 1946, and the Government was making every effort to find Czechoslovak nationals to fill in the gaps in the national economy. Poland similarly was undertaking to move out 3.5 million Germans.

Training and retraining form another paramount problem. The Belgian authorities foresaw the need for planning for the rehabilitation of workers, and a retraining program and unemployment-compensation system were implemented in legislation of December 28, 1944, and May 26, 1945. France intended to train 200,000 apprentices for work on construction in connection with the broad national building program described below. The Norwegian Government has subsidized necessary training. Training schemes were being fostered in Italy, e. g., that for the building trades in Milan. The Finnish Government has planned a training program estimated to cost 58 million marks.

Plans for public works in the liberated countries ,which would aid in providing not only a guaranty against unemployment but also the material reconstruction required in postwar years, were developed during World War II. In 1945, steps were taken to perfect these plans in the light of the current situation and to put them into effect as far as shortages of raw materials, industrial equipment, and of trained workers would permit. Some of the published plans make provision for stated public works; others outline theories as to the government's part in insuring a high employment level over the long term, as outlined below.

In Belgium a decree of August 31, 1945, outlined a plan for the extension and contraction of investment in public works both national and local in scope. Specifications for public works to be undertaken immediately and others to be held in reserve (for emergency) were to be prepared by local governments and submitted annually to an interministerial committee presided over by the Minister of Public Works. Provision was made for technical advice in planning and for determining the amount of national and local subsidy by decree.

The French Government authorized a military census of men 18 to 48 years of age by decree of January 10, 1945, and these men were to be required to report upon their employment and occupational qualifications. The Government also required all enterprises to prepare lists of employees, showing the technical qualifications of each individual. A plan for reconstruction of housing and industrial buildings, including water supply, etc., was placed before the Finance Minister in the fall of 1945. It would require a labor force of 1.7 million persons by the end of 1947, of whom 1 million would be prisoners of war and other foreign workers. Of the remaining 700,000 possibly 500,000 would be French workmen and artisans and 200,000 qualified French apprentices. Total manpower needs to carry out the reconstruction plan were estimated at 13.9 billion man-hours and would require, in addition to France's prewar 500,000 construction workers, 1 million foreign workers for 10 years. The creation of a French Planning Council for Modernization and Reequipment, composed of Ministers and representatives of civil service, private

industry, and the trade-unions was announced in December 1945, to increase the productive capacity of the national economy.

A Netherlands Government statement submitted to the Lower House of Parliament late in 1945 proposed Government subsidy and extension of credit for reconstruction and the rebuilding of industry, and the reeducation of "political delinquents" into useful members of society.

The Danish Government presented a plan to Parliament on its opening day following liberation (May 9, 1945), providing for State subsidy of national and municipal works to a total of 600 million kroner. The money would be used to furnish direct employment to 60,000 to 65,000 persons during a whole year. Production would be promoted through resumption of Denmark's foreign trade and reconstruction of the merchant fleet. Late in September 1945, about 14,000 workers were employed on public-works projects under the emergency legislation.

The Labor Government in Norway is committed to a program of State planning for the maintenance of full employment, to be assured by maintaining the level of consumption and by developing private and public investments. The program also calls for Government supervision of exports and control of imports through the license system, for extension of Government control over transportation and communication, and for possible control by the Government of the banking and insurance systems.

The Government of Czechoslovakia is extending its control over the national economy through the nationalization of all key industries, banks, and insurance companies and is thus becoming the country's chief employer. The Czechoslovak Government, moreover, has announced its policy of gradually raising the level of living of the entire population, and to that end intends to dispose of the country's manpower in such a way as to meet the needs of the country's planned economy.

Poland is apparently planning to solve its reconstruction and employment problems through the nationalization of its basic industries and the introduction of compulsory registration of labor, described above.

In Yugoslavia, where about 80 percent of the population is agricultural, the Government has assumed supervision over virtually the whole of the country's industrial production and distribution, and is planning to revive war-torn industries and to promote industrialization so as to provide employment for the country's small industrial working class and for surplus agricultural labor.

Greece is the only country in southeastern Europe in which Government control over the national economy is comparatively absent. The Government, however, has taken several measures to prevent unemployment. Besides planning a large program of highway and port works, the Government has authorized the Ministry of Labor to introduce a share-the-work system of employment in any undertaking unable to provide full-time work for all of its employees. Moreover, the discharge of workers is forbidden except for misconduct or incompetence.

The postwar German labor force will differ materially from that in prewar years both in size and composition, as a result of several

factors: Casualties are estimated at over 4 million, not including wounded and captured. Losses of territory, chiefly in the east, are likely to reduce the prewar German working population by 10 percent; there is, however, an offsetting repatriation of Germans from neighboring territory to the east and south.

Postwar plans for the employment of this labor force cannot be made by the Germans, in the absence of a central government, but are necessarily dependent upon the economic plans of the four occupying powers. Economic controls devised by the Allies are designed primarily to collect reparations, to disarm Germany, and to prevent a resurgence of the German war potential. The Allied Governments indicated at Potsdam, however, that they would make possible the "production and maintenance of goods and services required to meet the needs of the occupying forces and displaced persons in Germany and essential to maintain in Germany average living standards not exceeding the average of the standards of living of European countries. [The United Kingdom and the Soviet Union are excluded.]" Although the tasks of reconstruction and reparations might well require the full employment of every German able to work—though not necessarily at a high standard of compensation—this cannot be attained for some time, owing to the disorganization and dismemberment of the country's economy.

The Italian Government has endeavored to reduce unemployment by developing coordinated reconstruction plans, including an economic plan and an import program for 1946. Output of important commodities planned by the Government for 1946 would reach 50 to 80 percent of prewar production for aluminum, zinc, and lead; from 100 to 170 percent of prewar for precision tools, motor cars, railway rolling stock, electrical equipment, and agricultural machinery; and 75 percent for the building industry. Such production, however, would depend on imports of coal and raw materials, and industry was reported in November 1945 to be working at 25 percent of capacity. A public-works program was described in October 1945 as a means of employing 650,000 men. A decree of August 21, 1945, required State and semi-public and private organizations to reserve 50 percent of their employment for the following 2 years for ex-prisoners of war, deportees, partisans, and widows and orphans of soldiers killed in war.

In Finland, a public program for reconstruction is expected to take 15 years, even under the best circumstances. By July 1945, 260 million marks had been granted for repair of roads, railways, bridges, etc., expected to total an expenditure of 2.4 billion marks. Private repair of building damage, estimated at 2.8 billion marks, is subsidized by the State.

Asiatic Countries

ASIATIC MAINLAND

Trend of employment.—The great majority of the people in China (including the northeastern Provinces of Manchuria) and in Korea, French Indo-China, and Thailand are dependent upon agriculture for their livelihood, as shown in table 6. Even in Manchuria,[10] probably the most industrialized area, 75 percent of the gainfully occupied

[10] Statistical data for Manchuria in this article apply to the Japanese puppet State of Manchukuo, whose boundaries differ slightly from those of Manchuria.

population was dependent upon agriculture, forestry, and fishing in 1936, while many of those classified as employed in mining, manufacturing, or commerce were handicraft workers or workers in very small establishments with little mechanical equipment. They would hardly be considered industrial workers in the western sense of the word.

TABLE 6.—*Population and Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Persons in Five Asiatic Countries*

Item	Korea, 1930	Manchuria,[1] 1936 (official estimates)	China, 1930–1940 (estimates)	French-Indo China, 1936 (estimates)	Thailand, 1937
	Number of persons (in thousands)				
Population	21,058	35,803	450,000	23,030	14,464
Gainfully occupied, total	9,766	13,013	----------	----------	6,824
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	7,787	9,709	----------	----------	6,049
Manufacturing	586	927	[2] 2,000	[2] 1,570	130
Other	1,393	2,377	----------	----------	645

[1] Covers territory in Manchukuo and South Manchuria Railway Zone.
[2] Factory employment. The total number of handicraft and manufacturing employees is placed at 4,500,000 in some estimates.
[3] Persons completely dependent upon handicraft were estimated at 1,350,000 in 1938 and all wage-paid employees numbered 220,000 in 1929.

Since most of prewar Chinese industry was in the occupied areas along the coast, after the Japanese invasion the Chinese Government made great efforts to move factories to the interior. By 1940, 12,000 skilled workers, constituting a small but important portion of all skilled workers, had been moved to the interior, with 116,000 tons of equipment and materials. The Japanese also removed some textile equipment from the China coast to Japan.

Wartime conditions brought unemployment in consumer-goods industries, particularly textiles, in Occupied China, Korea, and Manchuria, but in the last two countries the Japanese promoted the development of heavy industry. Table 7 shows the effect of industrialization in Manchuria up to August 1939.

TABLE 7.—*Factories and Mines in Manchuria, and Their Employment at Specified Periods, 1935–39* [1]

Date	Factories		Mines	
	Number	Number of workers	Number	Number of workers
December 1935	179	55,021	26	58,500
December 1936	214	71,387	36	74,403
December 1937	226	99,112	50	115,206
December 1938	319	153,732	76	182,794
August 1939	344	180,860	92	223,913

[1] Data relate to Japanese-owned, power-equipped factories employing 50 or more persons in Manchukuo, South Manchuria Railway Zone, and Kwantung.

Wartime employment controls.—In Free China and also in Japanese-controlled areas, government manpower programs initially stressed the recruitment and training of factory workers. Where necessary,

such workers were registered, frozen to their jobs, and in Japanese-controlled areas, they were virtually conscripted. They were also given food rations sometimes twice those of ordinary civilians. In some cases, special housing was provided for factory workers on war contracts. Male labor for public construction projects was obtained under a compulsory-labor-service law in Free China, and by similar but frequently cruder and more drastic measures, in Japanese-controlled areas.

Long-term planning.—For China, Chiang Kai-shek stated on September 7, 1945, that "only when rural living conditions have been improved can the industrial and commercial centers have a solid foundation for rehabilitation." Plans are being made for extensive industrial development in China. The Kuomintang and other Chinese agencies have recommended State ownership of basic industries, and development of other industries with Government assistance when the necessary capital cannot be obtained otherwise. Such State aid will be of particular importance in those industries previously supported by large Japanese or puppet-government subsidies. Current conditions in French Indo-China, Thailand, and Korea have not made possible the development of specific postwar employment plans.

JAPAN

Introduction of employment controls.—Japan was able to increase industrial employment in support of the Manchuria incident in 1931 and the China war, beginning in 1937, with relatively little Government control. The estimated civilian labor force was increased to 32.3 million persons in 1937 from 29.4 million in 1931, in spite of some growth in the size of the armed forces. General wartime powers for the allocation and control of the civilian labor force were granted in the National General Mobilization Act of 1938 (revised in 1941), and the terms of this and later laws were made effective through ordinances from 1939 to the end of the war.

Labor was registered under five orders between July 1938 and February 1939; the most important registration (January 1939) covered skilled and technical persons. The first general registration of November 1941 covered all civilian men between the ages of 16 and 40 years and unmarried women aged 16 to 25. By 1944, 6 million persons were registered. Registration records or work books were retained by employers and were withheld from employees who attempted to leave their jobs without proper authorization. Other measures passed from 1938 to the fall of 1941 gave essential industries priority in the employment of skilled workers, restricted nonessential industries in the employment of persons in certain age groups, limited the movement of designated skilled groups of workers, and provided for labor conscription.

Employment controls, 1941–45.[11]—The system of controls established during 1941 continued without much legal change until mid-1943 when men aged 14 to 40 years were prohibited from holding employment in 17 specified nonessential occupations. Registration was expanded early in 1944, and in February 1944 men aged 14 to 60 and unmarried women aged 14 to 40 were made subject to conscription;

[11] Owing to the war, all statements are necessarily based upon incomplete evidence; they do represent the latest information on the Japanese manpower situation available in the United States.

this power was used extensively as regards men during 1943 and was applied to women in November 1944. By late 1944, these age groups had to obtain approval from employment offices before accepting a job. By the end of the war in 1945, the Japanese stated that 6 million workers had been conscripted. In addition, the Women's Volunteer Labor Corps mobilized nearly a half-million women for part-time work and, in March 1945, schools suspended all class work above the elementary grades, providing a reported 1,927,000 workers.

Disposition of labor force.—Estimates of population and labor force distribution in Japan are shown in table 8 for selected years from 1930 to 1944. The civilian labor and the armed forces formed 46 percent of the total population in 1930 and 51.9 percent in 1944.[12] The employed women represented 33 percent of the work force in 1930 and 36.1 percent in 1944. The most marked change in the structure of the labor force from 1930 to 1944, according to the estimates, was the rise in industrial employment, amounting to 59 percent. Volume of agricultural employment dropped about 1 percent but, in relation to the increased labor force, its relative importance was considerably reduced during these 15 years. Insofar as the estimates of the Japanese labor force are reliable, they indicate that most of the great increase in industrial unemployment had occurred by 1941, prior to the inauguration of extensive manpower controls. These measures were, however, probably largely responsible for increases in the total military and civilian labor supply after 1941 and were also important in moving workers from civilian to war industries.

TABLE 8.—*Estimated Population and Distribution of Labor Force in Japan, by Principal Activity,*[1] *1930, 1937, 1941, and 1944*

Group	Number of persons (in millions)			
	1930	1937	1941	1944
Population	64.5	71.3	73.9	75.0
Estimated civilian labor force	29.4	32.3	31.9	32.7
Agriculture	14.1	13.7	13.2	13.9
Fishing	.6	.7	.7	.5
Mining	.3	.4	.5	.6
Manufacturing and construction	5.9	7.6	8.5	9.4
Commerce	4.9	5.7	4.8	3.9
Transportation and communication	.9	.9	.9	1.1
Government and professional	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.4
Domestic	.8	1.0	.8	.6
Miscellaneous	.1	.4	.4	.3
Armed forces [2]	.2	----------	----------	[2] 6.2

[1] The industrial distribution for 1930 is taken from the 1930 Census of Japan, Final Report, table 46, Industrial Distribution. All other data are estimated by United States Government agencies.
[2] Estimates for the armed forces are not available for 1937 and 1941; the number given for 1944 is the number in the armed forces in August 1945, according to the United States War and Navy Departments.

Situation in 1945.—Japanese radio broadcasts between August 14 and November 15, 1945, were the main source of information available in the United States on the postwar relaxation of employment controls. They state that the ban on employment of males aged 14 to 40 years in the 17 nonessential wartime occupations was removed, that the national patriotic labor-service organizations were disbanded, that

[12] This percentage was obtained by adding to the civilian labor force of 32,700,000 in 1944, the estimated figure of 6,200,000 men in the armed forces at the time of surrender in 1945, and dividing by the total population (estimated at 75 million).

registration for work was discontinued, and that anyone was free to seek employment at will.

In November, measures were under consideration to alleviate labor shortages existing in coal mining, shipbuilding and repair, and agriculture, although the general outlook was one of widespread unemployment. Japanese estimates placed the number of unemployed at 4 million on November 16, 1945. Reports indicate that large numbers of former city dwellers had gone to live with relatives on farms and that many Japanese have been engaged in rebuilding their homes, living meanwhile on savings accumulated while doing war work.

The Japanese Government hoped that reconstruction and agricultural development could absorb the unemployed. By December 1945, the Ministry of Agriculture had formulated plans to resettle 100,000 families, by April 1946, on land formerly under army or private ownership. In addition, adult males were to have job preference over students, old people, women, and Koreans, and 3 million women were expected to withdraw from industrial occupations. Most Koreans in Japan and Japanese in Korea will probably return to their respective countries of origin. Under the Allied occupation policy and the economic disarmament program, the Japanese Government is responsible for measures for the relief of unemployment and the development of peaceful civilian industries.

Occupational Outlook

Employment Outlook for Automobile Mechanics[1]

Summary

A sharp rise in employment of automobile mechanics is in prospect now that the war is over. Nevertheless, taking the country as a whole, the number of persons who will be seeking work in the occupation will exceed the number of available jobs. Many less skilled men will, therefore, have difficulty in finding work, particularly after the next few months, although the relatively small group of highly skilled specialists and all-round mechanics will have a good chance of employment. These are the chief conclusions of the present study, which was undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to provide information needed for vocational-guidance purposes. Other subjects of interest to prospective automobile mechanics, also discussed, include training, working conditions, and earnings.

In 1940, there were 377,000 employed automobile mechanics and repairmen and 65,000 who were unemployed, making this one of the largest skilled occupations in the country. During the war, many thousands of persons without previous experience entered the trade, but so many mechanics left to go into war industries and the armed forces that employment dropped by at least 40 percent (or to about 225,000) in 1945.

In view of the expected expansion in motor-vehicle registrations and repair needs, employment will probably return rapidly to the prewar level and subsequently will rise at a slower pace, reaching about 450,000 by 1950. There will also be a few thousand job openings each year owing to deaths, retirements, and transfers to other types of work. However, the number of men with military or civilian experience in automotive repair who are likely to be looking for jobs will exceed the anticipated number of employment opportunities, except perhaps during the transition period.

For people who plan to enter this occupation despite the impending oversupply of labor, the best type of preparation depends on the prospective mechanic's age. Young people under 18 should, if possible, complete at least 2 years of high school before looking for work. In the case of persons over high-school age, the quickest way to become a skilled mechanic is to find employment in a repair shop, learn on the job from experienced men, and concurrently supplement this experience with night-school instruction in related technical subjects. Beginners going to work in the trade have usually had to start out in such jobs as helper, greaser, or washer, although it has sometimes been possible to start as an apprentice, and opportunities

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Herbert L. Gottlieb, under the supervision of Helen Wood. Sylvia K. Lawrence assisted in the statistical work. This report is available as the Bureau's Bulletin No. 842.

for systematic training are likely to be more widespread than before the war.

Earnings and working conditions of automobile mechanics vary widely, even within the same city. In 1938 and 1939, typical earnings of experienced mechanics ranged from $20 to $35 for a 40–60-hour workweek, though some highly skilled men made considerably more. Information on straight-time hourly earnings obtained by the Bureau in 1943 and 1944 indicate that there was a rise in wages during the war. In 1943, straight-time average hourly earnings of general automobile mechanics and body repairmen in most of the areas surveyed ranged from 70 cents to $1.20, which suggests a typical wage range of $28 to $48 for a 40-hour workweek. Actual weekly earnings were usually higher than this, however, owing to longer working hours and, often, to premium pay for overtime. In addition, employment and earnings generally were fairly regular throughout the year, in the prewar period as well as during the war.

Nature of the Occupation

The term automobile mechanic, as used in the present study, covers all skilled workers who repair and replace worn or damaged mechanical, electrical, and body parts of passenger cars, busses, and trucks. Included under this broad definition are general automobile mechanics and various types of specialists, such as auto electricians, carburetor and brake experts, and body repairmen. The general automobile mechanic examines equipment to determine the causes of faulty operation; disassembles such separate parts of the vehicle as the motor, differential, transmission, running gear, and electrical system; repairs or replaces defective parts; reassembles the pieces in their respective places, making the necessary adjustments for alinement and proper clearance; and performs any other tasks necessary to return a vehicle to operative condition.

Specialists other than body repairmen are usually mechanics with an all-round knowledge of automotive repair who have concentrated upon one aspect of the work. They should not be confused with the much larger group of semiskilled men who have knowledge of only one relatively simple aspect of repair work. The latter group—many of whom were trained during the war—may more properly be designated as single-skill mechanics. They are not usually qualified to diagnose the source of trouble and often require the close supervision of a specialist or all-round mechanic.

Reconditioning of fenders and bodies is a distinct specialty which does not require knowledge of the principles of the internal combustion engine and of the various related parts of the vehicle. In consequence, body repairmen are seldom recruited from among general automobile mechanics even in general repair shops. Except in rare instances the all-round mechanic is not qualified to undertake the work of the body repairman.

Automotive machinists, whose occupation consists of using such machine tools as drill presses, lathes, and milling machines in piston and valve boring and grinding and other tasks incidental to the major overhaul of motors, are not covered by this study. Until the latter part of the twenties, the duties of the automotive machinist and mechanic were in many cases performed by the same person, which

may account for the confused and loose way the terms have been used. In more recent years, however, the two types of work have been performed in separate establishments by men with altogether different kinds of training and skill. Separation between the two types of work resulted partly from the large-scale production of extra parts, which made possible the replacement rather than repair of seriously worn or damaged parts. In addition, defective motors are now often removed and replaced by other motors which have been rebuilt in a machine shop or factory. Thus, repair shops seldom need men skilled as machinists, although mechanics may use electric hand drills and reamers in such jobs as fitting replacement parts.

Status of Occupation Before and During the War

More than any other country the United States is geared economically and socially to motor-vehicle transport, supporting in the immediate prewar years over twice as many passenger cars, busses, and trucks as the rest of the world combined. In 1940, there were 32 million registered motor vehicles in the country, 1 for every 4 persons.

To repair and maintain this vast fleet, 377,000 automobile mechanics and repairmen were employed, according to the 1940 Census of Population. Automobile mechanics constituted nearly half of the total number of mechanics and repairmen of all types reported as employed. The numbers of skilled mechanics working on other types of transportation equipment were insignificantly small in comparison. There were, for example, only 40,000 employed railroad and car shop mechanics and 27,000 airplane mechanics. The importance of the occupation is further indicated by the fact that for every 3 employees engaged in the manufacture of automobiles and automobile equipment, 2 automobile mechanics were employed.

Since the use of motor vehicles is Nation-wide, automobile mechanics are needed in all sections of the country, including the smallest rural communities. The greatest concentrations are of course in the regions with the highest motor-vehicle registrations (table 1). Five States—New York, California, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Texas—had more than one-third both of the total number of registered motor vehicles and of all employed automobile mechanics in 1940. New York and California alone accounted for 17.2 percent of the total registrations and 17.4 percent of the automobile mechanics. In contrast, the six New England States, with only 6.3 percent of the country's motor vehicles, employed only 6.8 percent of the automotive repairmen.

Most mechanics work either in independent general repair shops or in the service departments maintained by dealers of the various car and truck manufacturers. The 1939 Census of Business reported 52,000 independent repair garages. The number of dealer shops reported was considerably smaller, about 34,000 and a few of these did not have service departments. However, on the basis of a sample survey made in 1940 by Motor Service Magazine, the average number of mechanics employed in independent garages was estimated at only 2½ per shop, while the average number in dealer establishments in communities under 10,000 population was over twice as great and in larger cities more than three times as great.[2] In addition,

[2] Motor Service Magazine (Chicago, Ill.), July 15, 1944.

TABLE 1.—*Number and Percentage Distribution of Automobile Mechanics and Registered Motor Vehicles, by Region and State, 1940*

Region and State	Employed automobile mechanics and repairmen [1]		Motor vehicle registrations [2]	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
United States	376,985	100.0	32,025,365	100.0
New England	25,541	6.8	2,019,944	6.3
Maine	2,763	.7	205,896	.6
New Hampshire	1,557	.4	135,384	.4
Vermont	1,328	.4	93,645	.3
Massachusetts	12,644	3.4	903,843	2.8
Rhode Island	1,886	.5	187,509	.6
Connecticut	5,363	1.4	493,667	1.6
Middle Atlantic	75,789	20.1	5 975,829	18.7
New York	37,720	10.0	2,743,014	8.6
New Jersey	13,215	3.5	1,086,966	3.4
Pennsylvania	24,854	6.6	2,145,849	6.7
East North Central	77,622	20.6	7,292,225	22.8
Ohio	19,908	5.3	1,918,929	6.0
Indiana	10,353	2.7	994,006	3.1
Illinois	23,293	6.2	1,925,814	6.0
Michigan	16,075	4.3	1,552,561	4.9
Wisconsin	7,993	2.1	900,915	2.8
West North Central	43,121	11.4	3,959,858	12.4
Minnesota	8,693	2.3	871,351	2.7
Iowa	8,135	2.2	793,969	2.5
Missouri	11,524	3.1	921,800	2.9
North Dakota	1,876	.4	182,287	.6
South Dakota	2,035	.5	195,667	.6
Nebraska	4,504	1.2	412,116	1.3
Kansas	6,354	1.7	582,668	1.8
South Atlantic	43,838	11.6	3,406,136	10.6
Delaware	817	.2	71,763	.2
Maryland	5,653	1.5	444,532	1.4
District of Columbia	1,793	.5	161,914	.5
Virginia	6,710	1.8	498,838	1.6
West Virginia	3,779	1.0	302,558	.9
North Carolina	7,843	2.1	591,946	1.8
South Carolina	3,834	1.0	336,772	1.1
Georgia	6,919	1.8	502,603	1.6
Florida	6,490	1.7	495,210	1.5
East South Central	21,300	5.6	1,510,576	4.7
Kentucky	6,430	1.7	463,727	1.4
Tennessee	6,514	1.7	447,983	1.4
Alabama	4,905	1.3	339,853	1.1
Mississippi	3,451	.9	259,013	.8
West South Central	37,240	9.9	2,891,438	9.0
Arkansas	3,836	1.0	257,177	.8
Louisiana	5,184	1.4	365,429	1.1
Oklahoma	7,060	1.9	574,719	1.8
Texas	21,160	5.6	1,694,113	5.3
Mountain	13,824	3.7	1,239,627	3.9
Montana	2,073	.6	191,032	.6
Idaho	1,789	.5	163,340	.5
Wyoming	900	.2	85,657	.3
Colorado	3,587	1.0	352,110	1.1
New Mexico	1,647	.4	125,056	.4
Arizona	1,621	.4	138,403	.4
Utah	1,759	.5	139,921	.5
Nevada	448	.1	44,108	.1
Pacific	38,710	10.3	3,729,732	11.6
Washington	6,612	1.8	562,495	1.8
Oregon	4,356	1.1	393,578	1.2
California	27,742	7.4	2,773,659	8.6

[1] Sixteenth Census of U. S. Population, Vol. II, The Labor Force, Parts 2-5.
[2] Federal Works Agency, Public Roads Administration. Publicly owned vehicles are excluded.

mechanics were employed in shops specializing in such work as battery and ignition, wheel and axle, and brake repair, which numbered about 5,000 in 1939; in the 7,000 shops engaged primarily in radiator and body repair; in many of the 7,000 used-car establishments; and in about 12,000 garages of transportation companies and of department stores, coal companies, breweries, and other firms which maintained their own fleets of motor vehicles. A few mechanics were employees of the Nation's 242,000 gasoline-filling stations.

As suggested by the comparatively small number of specialized shops, automotive-repair specialists were much less numerous than general automobile mechanics, though the former group has increased in importance in recent years. Specialists are employed not only in shops engaged solely or primarily in their particular type of work but also in some large independent repair garages and greater numbers of fleet and dealer establishments which have become departmentalized. Men employed in departmentalized shops may be shifted from one department to another, however, depending upon fluctuations in the volume of business of different types, and their duties are therefore likely to be more varied than those of mechanics in specialized shops. In the small general repair garage, independent or dealer, departmentalization is of course not feasible, and the mechanic is required, as a rule, to perform any type of repair work necessary to restore a vehicle to operative condition.

Developments after 1940—the spectacular expansion in war industries, recruitment into the armed forces, cessation of passenger-car production, and shortage of repair parts and materials—of course greatly altered conditions in the automotive-service industry. The reserve of unemployed automobile mechanics, who numbered 65,000 at the time of the 1940 Census, was absorbed early in the war, probably before the end of 1942, by the automotive-maintenance industry itself, the armed forces, and war industries. Thousands of employed automobile mechanics were lost to the armed forces and war industries. As a result, employment in the occupation dropped by at least 40 percent between 1940 and 1944—or to about 225,000—according to data from a number of different surveys by Government and private agencies.

The personnel loss which the automotive-maintenance industry sustained is not fully indicated by this net decline in employment. Thousands of experienced mechanics were replaced by persons with little or no previous experience in the field, many of them trained in accelerated courses under the sponsorship of the U. S. Office of Education or of local dealer groups throughout the country. Thus a tremendous qualitative as well as quantitative loss in personnel occurred during the war.

Concurrently, there was a drop in the number of repair shops and in the volume of repair work handled, though this was not as great as the decline in employment. Estimates by Motor Service Magazine, for example, show a decrease in employment of mechanics between 1941 and 1944 of almost 30 percent, but a drop of only 22 percent in the number of independent and dealer shops and of only 15 percent in the number of service jobs handled.[3]

That the decrease in volume of work was not in proportion to the decline in employment during the war points to an increase in

[3] Motor Service Magazine (Chicago, Ill.), July 15, 1944, and November 1, 1944.

the average number of jobs handled per mechanic per week. This is explained, in part, by a rise in average hours of work, particularly in small independent shops where self-employed mechanics often worked more than 12 hours a day for extended periods of time. In the second place, there was, in many instances, a deterioration in the quality of work compared with prewar standards. Finally, the constant pressure of work during the war permitted much fuller utilization of labor time than in former years, when mechanics often had to spend much time waiting for job assignments. The American Automobile Association found, for example, that in 12,000 of its official garages, the average number of hours spent on repair work increased from 5.8 per man-day in 1941 to 7.5 in 1942.[4] This upward trend in labor utilization undoubtedly continued during 1943 and 1944 as more shops closed and employment continued to decline.

Altogether, in view of the many difficulties with which they have been confronted, the automotive-maintenance industry and its workers achieved a remarkable degree of success in keeping the Nation's aging motor vehicles in operative condition. Since millions of workers in war-industry centers depended upon the passenger car and bus to transport them to work and since trucks and intercity busses carried unprecedented traffic loads, this accomplishment was an important contribution to the war effort.

Employment Prospects

Rising employment of automobile mechanics during the transition period may be confidently predicted. In these early postwar years, the need for mechanics' services will be greater than during the war, because more liberal supplies of gasoline, tires, and repair parts will permit increased use of aging vehicles. Moreover, the release of skilled workers from the armed forces and war industries will tend, by and of itself, to raise the number employed in many repair shops which even before the end of the war were in need of additional help. Whether employment of mechanics will continue to rise after large numbers of new cars become available and the labor deficit has been made up will, however, depend largely on the number of automobiles then in operation. It is necessary, therefore, to examine the prospects with respect to motor-vehicle registrations, as a basis for estimating future employment and, ultimately, for considering how job openings are likely to compare with the numbers of trained workers who are potential entrants into the occupation.

TREND OF MOTOR-VEHICLE REGISTRATIONS

Between the advent of the automobile and the entrance of the United States into World War II, there were only 4 years in which motor-vehicle registrations failed to increase—1931–33 and 1938—all years of deep depression. The most spectacular upward climb of course occurred during the first years in the automobile's history, from 1905 through 1917. After 1926, a marked leveling off in the growth curve was evident, but the peak in registrations was not reached until 1941, when 29.5 million passenger cars and 4.9 million busses and trucks were on the roads. This was an average of one

[4] Automotive Digest (Cincinnati, Ohio), March 1943, p. 12.

vehicle for every 3.9 persons in the population, the highest ratio so far achieved in any year.

The rise in motor-vehicle registrations was not accompanied by a corresponding growth in production. Output for the domestic market (as measured by factory sales) has never yet regained the 1929 level of 4.62 million vehicles, although the 1941 production figure was nearly as high (4.58 million). During the intervening years, the number of new passenger cars, busses, and trucks reaching the market fluctuated widely but, nevertheless, exceeded the number of old vehicles scrapped in all except the four depression years mentioned above, when there were slight declines in registrations.

On the other hand, production has greatly exceeded the gain in registrations in all years after 1926. Sales of new motor vehicles have been largely for replacements, and the number of new owners purchasing cars has tended to decrease. There is, however, no evidence that the saturation point in vehicle ownership has been reached or closely approached. In fact, had the war not intervened, the level of vehicle ownership would probably have continued to rise, though at a decreasing rate, for at least another decade.

During the war, production of passenger cars was prohibited and output of commercial vehicles for civilian use drastically curtailed. Some new vehicles were available from the stockpile built up before the war, but the number of these was very limited. In consequence, registrations declined sharply. The number of passenger cars registered decreased from 29.5 million in 1941 to 25.3 million in 1944, a drop of 14 percent. Truck and bus registrations dropped almost 8 percent in the same period, from 4,948,000 in 1941 to 4,576,000 in 1944, despite the imperative need for continued operation of all available commercial vehicles.

The backlog of demand for new vehicles which was created for the immediate postwar years is only partially indicated by comparing present registrations with the 1941 figure. In the first place, had the prewar upward trend in registrations continued, many new vehicle buyers would have entered the market. Secondly, a tremendous number of vehicles will be scrapped as soon as replacements become available. According to the Office of Defense Transportation, the average age of passenger cars at the start of 1941 was 4½ years, whereas the average age at the beginning of 1945 was slightly over 7 years. The proportion of cars under 3 years of age fell from 30 percent to only 2 percent during the same period, while the proportion 7 years old and over rose from about 35 to 60 percent. The average age of commercial vehicles has undoubtedly risen also, although comparative figures are not available.

The deterioration which has resulted from this increase in vehicle age is obviously great although probably less, on the average, than would have occurred under normal conditions, since rationing of tires and gasoline during the war restricted the use of most passenger cars. On the other hand, some cars were not used often enough to keep them in good condition, while a few other cars and most trucks and busses were operated more intensively than before the war. Because of this situation and also because of the shortage of mechanics and replacement parts, a considerable number of vehicles deteriorated far more rapidly than they would have in peacetime.

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The deferred demand for new vehicles thus built up has been estimated by Government and industry experts at 12 to 15 million passenger cars and perhaps 2½ million commercial vehicles. In their opinion, there will be an unprecedented annual output when full-scale production is resumed and a rise in registrations above the 1941 peak figure.

The estimates of future production and registrations arrived at in the present study are in line with this view. They are based upon an examination of the above indicated long-term trends and wartime developments and of several different postwar estimates, supplemented by consultation with a number of persons closely acquainted with the field. It is assumed, for the purposes of this study, that the levels of general business activity will be favorable. Estimates of total yearly production, rising well above the record 1929 level, were the starting point of the calculations. To adapt these figures for use in estimating registrations, an allowance was made for inventory requirements and for exports—yielding estimates of the number of vehicles likely to reach domestic consumers. The number of cars, trucks, and busses that will be scrapped each year was also estimated—at much higher figures than prevailed before the war, as would be expected in view of the present age and condition of the country's motor vehicles. Adding the estimated sales of new vehicles to 1944 registrations and subtracting the scrappage estimates yielded the following figures on passenger-car and commercial-vehicle registrations through 1950:

	Estimated registrations (in millions) of—		
	Passenger cars	*Trucks and busses*	*Total vehicles*[1]
1944[2]	25.3	4.5	29.8
1945	23.4	4.7	28.1
1946	23.9	4.9	28.8
1947	26.0	5.1	31.1
1948	28.2	5.3	33.5
1949	30.5	5.5	36.0
1950	33.3	5.8	39.1

[1] Registrations are as of end of the year and are exclusive of publicly owned vehicles. It is assumed that the number of such vehicles will remain fairly constant in the postwar years. It is possible that future registrations will be higher than estimated if low-priced cars modeled on the style of the Army Jeep will be produced on a large scale. However, there is no way at present of ascertaining how many of these cars could be sold, and the effect such sales might have upon the sales of other cars or upon the over-all need for mechanics' services.

[2] Source: Public Roads Administration, exclusive of publicly owned vehicles.

The 1950 registration estimates would represent a gain of 4.7 million motor vehicles above the 1941 level—a rise quite in line with the long-term trend which, as previously noted, has been ascending at a decreasing rate. If, as expected, the population of the United States reaches 144½ million by 1950, the figures would mean one motor vehicle for every 3.7 persons in that year, compared with a ratio of 3.9 in 1941. This too would be consistent with prewar trends, which suggest a continued slow rise in the ratio of vehicles to population.

PROSPECTIVE LABOR DEMAND AND SUPPLY

The number of automobile mechanics needed in the next few years will of course depend not only on motor-vehicle registrations but also on labor requirements per vehicle—which will, in turn, be determined by such factors as working hours, labor productivity, and vehicle age and utilization.

During the war there was a sharp rise in the number of registered vehicles per employed mechanic, reflecting the greater drop in employment than in registrations. This change was, however, the result of wartime conditions which are unlikely to survive the transition period. With the freeing of gasoline, tires, and replacement parts, cars will probably once again be used with somewhat the same frequency as before the war. Because many repair shops will soon be opened, the total volume of repair work will be divided among more shops and the steady pressure of incoming work which permitted fuller utilization of labor time during the war will no longer prevail. In addition, the quality of work and the number of working hours will probably return to prewar levels, thereby eliminating the other factors which made possible increased output per mechanic during the war.

It is possible that a more widespread use of testing instruments and the introduction of improved devices will in the future enable mechanics to complete repairs and replacements more quickly, but this type of change will play a relatively insignificant role in determining total demand for mechanics in the next 5 years. It is also possible that there may be an increasing number of large departmentalized shops, and this would tend to raise productivity and correspondingly to lower labor requirements. On the other hand, many returning veterans may open their own small garages, which would be an offsetting factor.

Future demand for mechanics will also be influenced by the durability of new vehicles, the frequency with which vehicles will be operated, and the extent to which factories undertake the repair of motors and other parts. Unfortunately, it is not possible at this time to gage the effect of such changes or the extent to which one factor will offset another. Expert opinion indicates, however, that passenger cars will not differ radically from prewar models in the early postwar years. As in the past, improvements and changes will be introduced slowly.

One factor—the temporary increase in vehicle age—will certainly tend to raise the amount of repair work needed per vehicle above prewar requirements. According to the estimated rates of production and scrappage, about 50 percent of the registered passenger cars will still be 7 years old and over from 1946 through 1948, as contrasted with only 34 percent in 1940, although the number and proportion under 3 years old will rise rapidly and the average age of all cars will decrease. By 1950, a greater proportion of cars will be under 3 years old than in 1940, but the average age of all cars and the proportions under 7 years and 7 years and over will be approximately the same as in that year. Similarly, the average age of commercial vehicles will fall rapidly from 1946 onward and, by 1950, will probably be much the same as before the war.

Altogether, it appears reasonable to assume that the relationship between the number of motor vehicles and the employment of automobile mechanics in 1950 will approximate the 1940 situation—when there were 85 registered vehicles for every employed automobile mechanic in the country.[5] On the basis of this ratio and of the estimated number of registered motor vehicles for 1950, then, employ-

[5] Although the ratio varied to a certain extent from State to State, analysis of the relationship between the number of employed automobile mechanics and the number of registered vehicles in 1940—the only year for which complete data are available—revealed a high degree of correlation. Using data for the 48 States and the District of Columbia, the coefficient of correlation was 0.97.

ment of automobile mechanics may be expected to rise by that year to about 460,000. Even under the highest estimates as to future production of motor vehicles, if Nation-wide full employment should be achieved, the number of vehicles in use would be less than 10 percent higher than is assumed here; but employment of automobile mechanics would not by any means be correspondingly greater, since the average age of vehicles would be lowered and the amount of repair work needed per vehicle would also drop. The level of employment estimated here for 1950 would be a gain of only about 80,000 over 1940 employment and not quite 20,000 over the total 1940 labor force (including experienced unemployed). However, it would mean an increase of roughly 235,000 compared with the estimated 1944–45 level of employment. The intervening years will witness, first, a sharp increase which will rapidly return employment to the prewar level and, subsequently, a continued rise at a slower pace.

In addition, some employment opportunities will, of course, be created by deaths and retirements, and transfers to other types of work. It is estimated that in the immediate postwar period there will be about 5 to 6 thousand job openings each year owing to death and retirement of employed automobile mechanics. Job openings arising from departures to other occupations will undoubtedly be much less numerous and will occur chiefly among the less skilled men, since for highly skilled workers with several years experience, such a change would generally mean starting at a lower level with a consequent decrease in earnings.

Despite the anticipated rapid rise in employment and the additional job openings which will arise owing to withdrawals from the occupation, the over-all employment outlook for automobile mechanics is unfavorable, because of the great number of persons who will probably seek work in the trade. According to data obtained from the War Department, there were in the Army alone as of a recent date about 200,000 enlisted personnel and more than 25,000 civilian employees performing work which is comparable to the duties of automobile mechanics in civilian life. Not all of these persons, of course, will want to remain in the occupation. Nevertheless, the number of men seeking mechanics' jobs after release from the Army will be tremendous, especially in view of the great number of enlisted men with civilian experience in this field—estimated shortly before the end of the war at about 140,000.

No statistics are available regarding Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard personnel engaged in automotive repair work, but it is estimated that more than 25,000 former automobile mechanics entered these branches of the armed forces during the war. Furthermore, as mentioned previously, a great many mechanics left the trade to enter war industries. Two surveys conducted by the National Automobile Dealers' Association in 1942 and 1943 revealed that the number leaving repair shops for this reason was much greater than the number diverted to the armed forces. No doubt many of the former group later entered the armed forces, but if only half as many mechanics were in war industries at the end of the war as entered the armed forces, which appears a conservative assumption, the figure would run well into the tens of thousands, and it is likely that most of these men will wish to return to the trade now that the war is over.

Taking into consideration all these groups of potential entrants into the labor market, the conclusion is inescapable that job seekers will be more numerous than job openings in the occupation for several years after the war, except perhaps during the transition months. Nevertheless, the comparatively small group of fully qualified all-round mechanics and specialists are not likely to encounter much difficulty in obtaining employment. Much of the wartime training, both in civilian life and in the armed forces, was designed to produce, as quickly as possible, mechanics able to perform some of the simpler types of maintenance work under the supervision of more skilled workers. Many employers have been eagerly awaiting the return of the fully qualified men from the armed forces and war industries. In addition, because of their knowledge and experience, some of the highly skilled men may be able to open and succeed in their own businesses. For less skilled worker and, still more, for persons without any previous experience in the occupation, the Nation-wide employment outlook is unfavorable, although opportunities may of course be better in some local areas than others. Not only will there be an oversupply of partly trained mechanics but many persons have acquired skills in other types of work, such as aircraft engine maintenance, which would make it comparatively easy for them to learn and perform the duties of automobile mechanics, should they wish to enter the trade.

Education and Training

In view of the anticipated oversupply of automobile mechanics, young people who plan to enter this field should weigh carefully the obstacles which will confront them. For those who hope to enter the occupation despite the obstacles, the best type of preparation depends upon the prospective mechanic's age.

Young people under 18 should, if possible, complete at least 2 years of high school before looking for work or entering a vocational school. Even though there are no standard educational requirements in the trade, mechanics need to be able to read and understand easily trade journals, technical factory bulletins, and mechanical books, so that they can keep track of the changes in design and construction which the automotive industry introduces from year to year. Moreover, additional education enhances the chances for promotion to more responsible positions. Courses in English, general science, elementary physics, and mathematics are particularly valuable. Vocational-school training may also facilitate job progress, provided that the standards of the school are satisfactory and that actual conditions in the trade are adequately reproduced. Information regarding training programs and location of vocational schools is obtainable from local superintendents of schools and State supervisors for trade and industrial education. For the person over high-school age, the best and shortest way to become a skilled mechanic is to find employment in a repair shop, learn on the job from experienced men, and concurrently supplement this experience with trade-extension training in related technical subjects.

The prospective mechanic should seek to acquire a general knowledge of the construction and functioning of the motor vehicle because of the competitive advantages enjoyed by the all-round mechanic,

compared with the repairman whose knowledge and skill are limited to only one or a few types of repair work. The all-round man is able to obtain employment more readily in a repair shop of any size, regardless of whether the shop is departmentalized. In a departmentalized shop, he can transfer to another department which may be busier at the time when his regular work falls off. This is particularly important in view of the commission method of wage payment which prevails in many repair shops, both large and small, since in these circumstances ability to transfer from one type of work to another tends to reduce weekly fluctuations in earnings. Promotions to supervisory positions such as shop foreman, trouble shooter, or service manager is usually limited to all-round mechanics, because positions of this type require an ability to understand and check all kinds of work performed in the shop. Finally, an all-round knowledge of the occupation is of great value to the mechanic who plans to open his own garage.

Although a few months' experience and training are sufficient to equip a man to perform some of the simpler types of repair work, it generally takes 3 to 4 years to become a fully qualified mechanic. For all-round mechanics to become specialists, of course, requires additional time and study. However, it is possible for the man with a knack for handling metal to become a skilled body repairman in 2 to 3 years, since it is not necessary for him to acquire a technical knowledge of the construction and operation of the vehicle.

Unfortunately, no standard training methods prevail in the automotive-maintenance industry and the prospective mechanic generally has had to plan his own training. Boys going to work in the trade have usually started out in such jobs as helper, greaser, or washer, although it is sometimes possible to start as an apprentice. Where there are strict apprenticeship standards, as in the State of Washington, the apprentice receives prescribed on-the-job training in all types of repair work with a view toward becoming an all-round mechanic, and in addition he is required to attend night school for at least 144 hours per year throughout the apprenticeship period. At the end of the fourth year, the apprentice must pass an examination to qualify as a journeyman.

During the war, interest in systematic training was widely stimulated. For example, the Rhode Island Dealers Association, in cooperation with the State Department of Education and the War Manpower Commission, inaugurated early in 1944 an apprenticeship system similar to that in Washington. Under the Rhode Island plan, the applicant must have completed at least 2 years of high school in addition to passing tests for mechanical aptitude and general intelligence.

On the other hand, much of the wartime training both in civilian life and in the armed forces, as previously indicated, was designed to produce single-skill mechanics in as short a time as possible. Hence, if they wish to advance, many wartime trained mechanics will have to supplement their present knowledge and skill with additional schooling and on-the-job training.

Many of the wartime inaugurated training programs will not only be continued but broadened, now that the war is over, and other States are likely to duplicate the Washington and Rhode Island systems of apprenticeship. In the future, therefore, more systematic training

methods and stricter requirements with respect to education and mechanical aptitude may be expected throughout the trade.

Earnings and Working Conditions

Earnings and working conditions of automobile mechanics, like those of workers in many other service trades, vary widely. Some mechanics are in as favorable an economic position as skilled workers in major industries, but others continue to have relatively low wages and a poor working environment—a fact which accounts at least in part for the great exodus of mechanics to other jobs during the war.

HOURS AND EARNINGS

Typical earnings of experienced automobile mechanics before the wartime increases in wage rates were from $20 to $35 for a 40- to 60-hour workweek, according to studies of the occupation in three States—Georgia, Illinois, and Ohio—made by the National Youth Administration in 1938 and 1939. Learners were found to be earning much less, from $5 to $20 a week, while a few highly skilled mechanics were paid as high as $75.

Information on wartime earnings which is both more comprehensive and more reliable was obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics through Nation-wide studies of hourly wage rates and straight-time hourly earnings (in the case of mechanics paid on a commission basis) in selected areas in 1943 and 1944.[6] From the 1943 study, which was much the broader of the two and therefore more representative of the country as a whole, estimates of average straight-time hourly earnings and wage rates (including incentive payments but excluding premium payments for overtime and late-shift work) of general automobile mechanics are available for each of 279 wage areas scattered throughout the country.[7] Altogether, 13,780 general automobile mechanics were covered. Comparable estimates covering 4,552 body repairmen and 2,798 greasers are also available for a somewhat smaller number of areas. In addition, supplementary information was secured on such aspects of working conditions as hours of work, provisions for premium pay and paid vacations, and existence of union agreements.

Straight-time average hourly earnings of general automobile mechanics in most (87 percent) of the areas surveyed in 1943 were between 70 cents and $1.20 (table 2). Earnings were found to vary greatly not only in the country as a whole but also within regions and between cities of similar size, in terms of population. In general, however, earnings were slightly higher in the West Coast area than in other regions and also tended to be higher in large than in small cities. Practically all areas with average earnings under 90 cents had less than 100,000 population, while the greatest concentration of average

[6] The information for each wage area covered was based in some instances upon all, in others upon a sample, of the automobile-repair establishments. Although fleet-repair shops, such as those maintained by breweries, dairies, and coal companies, were included in a few areas, coverage in most instances was restricted to general independent and dealer repair shops. Establishments specializing in one type of service exclusively, such as body or electrical repair, were excluded. Except in a relatively few cases, establishments with less than nine employees were also not covered. To the extent that large shops pay more than small shops, therefore, the average hourly earnings may be overstated.

[7] The 1943 survey covered about 70 percent of the cities in the country with a population of 100,000 and over and about 40 percent of those between 25,000 and 100,000, but less than 2 percent of those under 25,000. However, the bulk of automobile mechanics work in the larger cities.

earnings in the larger areas was between 90 cents and $1.20. As table 2 indicates, median area-average earnings for general automobile mechanics in cities under 100,000 population were 88 cents compared with $1.02 in cities over 100,000.

In the less extensive survey conducted by the Bureau in 1944, a separation was made between fully qualified (grade A) mechanics and less skilled (grade B) men performing less varied and simpler tasks. In nearly all of the areas covered in 1944, the average earnings of grade B mechanics were from 60 cents to $1.10 and of grade A mechanics from 90 cents to $1.40. Median area-average earnings for grade B men were 79 cents an hour, compared with $1.16 for grade A men.

Body repairmen generally made, on the average, several cents more an hour than general mechanics in 1943, although for them as for all-round men straight-time average hourly earnings were between 70 cents and $1.20 in most of the areas surveyed. The earnings of greasers—which suggest the range of pay for beginners, since many mechanics have in the past entered the trade through initial work of this type—were, of course, much lower than those of body repairmen and general automobile mechanics. Average hourly earnings of these semiskilled men were between 40 and 70 cents in most of the selected wage areas.

Because these earnings data are averages for wage areas comprising an entire city, a city and its environs, or two or more neighboring communities believed to have similar wage rates, the more extensive range of individual earnings is obscured. Striking illustration of this is provided by earnings in the Detroit wage area in 1943. General automobile mechanics in this area averaged $1.42 an hour. However, the lowest and highest establishment averages were, respectively, 74 cents and $2.56 an hour, and the range in earnings of individual mechanics was still wider.

The individual's skill and the type of shop in which he is employed greatly influence his rate of pay. The method of wage payment may also affect earnings. During the war, mechanics paid on a commission basis (usually 40 to 50 percent of the standard price of completed work, exclusive of the cost of replacement parts) generally earned slightly more per hour than those paid an hourly rate, and, other conditions being equal, also had higher weekly earnings. Other factors which influence weekly earnings are the number of hours worked per week, whether the shop where the mechanic is employed provides for premium rates of pay, and the number of hours required in such shops before premium pay becomes effective. Weekly earnings of self-employed mechanics probably have varied to a greater extent than those of other mechanics, depending not only on the individual's business ability and knowledge of the trade but also on the number of mechanics working for him.

The number of hours of work per week in automotive-repair establishments varied considerably before and during the war. Under the customary 5- to 6-day workweek and 8- to 10-hour day, typical working hours for automobile mechanics ranged from 40 to 60 hours a week. For example, in 257 automotive-repair establishments in 10 Ohio wage areas studied by the Bureau during 1944, the standard workweek was in all instances within this range of 40 to 60 hours, and in nearly seven-eighths of the shops was from 44 to 52 hours.

TABLE 2.—*Area-Average Straight-Time Hourly Earnings for General Automobile Mechanics, Body Repairmen, and Greasers; Selected Wage Areas, March–October 1943*

Average hourly earnings (per wage area)	General automobile mechanics		Body repairmen, metal		Greasers	
	Number of wage areas	Percent	Number of wage areas	Percent	Number of wage areas	Percent
	All areas					
$0.30 and under $0.40					26	10.2
$0.40 and under $0.50					54	21.2
$0.50 and under $0.60	2	0.7	4	1.6	63	24.7
$0.60 and under $0.70	13	4.6	13	5.1	52	20.4
$0.70 and under $0.80	64	22.9	45	17.5	23	9.0
$0.80 and under $0.90	46	16.5	44	17.1	25	9.8
$0.90 and under $1.00	47	16.8	33	12.8	12	4.7
$1.00 and under $1.10	42	15.2	45	17.5		
$1.10 and under $1.20	43	15.4	37	14.4		
$1.20 and under $1.30	13	4.6	17	6.6		
$1.30 and under $1.40	3	1.1	8	3.1		
$1.40 and under $1.50	5	1.8	6	2.3		
$1.50 and over	1	0.4	5	1.9		
Total	279	100.0	257	100.0	255	100.0
Median hourly earnings	$0.92		$0.97		$0.57	
	Areas under 100,000 population					
$0.30 and under $0.40					22	11.6
$0.40 and under $0.50					49	25.9
$0.50 and under $0.60	2	0.9	4	2.1	52	27.5
$0.60 and under $0.70	13	6.1	11	5.8	32	16.9
$0.70 and under $0.80	59	27.8	43	22.5	16	8.5
$0.80 and under $0.90	43	20.3	39	20.5	14	7.4
$0.90 and under $1.00	27	12.7	26	13.7	4	2.1
$1.00 and under $1.10	25	11.8	24	12.6		
$1.10 and under $1.20	30	14.2	22	11.6		
$1.20 and under $1.30	8	3.8	10	5.3		
$1.30 and under $1.40	1	0.5	6	3.2		
$1.40 and under $1.50	3	1.4	2	1.1		
$1.50 and over	1	0.5	3	1.6		
Total	212	100.0	190	100.0	189	100.0
Median hourly earnings	$0.88		$0.89		$0.54	
	Areas of 100,000 population and over					
$0.30 and under $0.40					4	6.0
$0.40 and under $0.50					5	7.6
$0.50 and under $0.60					11	16.7
$0.60 and under $0.70			2	3.0	20	30.3
$0.70 and under $0.80	5	7.5	2	3.0	7	10.6
$0.80 and under $0.90	3	4.5	5	7.5	11	16.7
$0.90 and under $1.00	20	29.8	7	7.5	8	12.1
$1.00 and under $1.10	17	25.3	21	31.2		
$1.10 and under $1.20	13	19.4	15	22.3		
$1.20 and under $1.30	5	7.5	7	7.5		
$1.30 and under $1.40	2	3.0	2	3.0		
$1.40 and under $1.50	2	3.0	4	6.0		
$1.50 and over			2	3.0		
Total	67	100.0	67	100.0	66	100.0
Median hourly earnings	$1.02		$1.07		$0.67	

Premium pay for work in excess of a stipulated number of hours a day or week or both is provided for in some shops and apparently became more common during the war. Of the 257 establishments covered in the Ohio wage areas mentioned above, 101 paid time and one-half for work beyond a specified number of hours in 1 week (40

hours in 55 repair shops, 44 hours in 29, and 48 in the remaining 17). Only 42 shops reported provisions for payment of premium rates for hours of work in excess of a stipulated number in 1 day, most of these paying time and a half for work beyond 8 hours. This situation with respect to overtime-pay provisions appeared to be fairly typical, except that in a few shops in other areas premium rates did not start before 50 or even 60 hours a week.

During the war, there was a marked increase in weekly earnings of automobile repairmen, in line with the general upward movement in wages. The average straight-time hourly earnings of general mechanics and body repairmen in most of the areas surveyed in 1943 suggest a typical wage range of $28 to $48 even for a 40-hour workweek, and actual average weekly earnings were no doubt generally higher. For example, the range of average weekly earnings for general mechanics and body repairmen employed in shops which averaged 50 hours a week and paid time and one-half after 44 hours would be $37 to $64.

Annual earnings depend upon regularity of employment, in addition to the factors discussed above. In recent years, employment and earnings generally have not varied very much from one month to another. Where there are slight seasonal fluctuations in volume of work, these are more likely to result in somewhat lower or higher weekly earnings, particularly in the case of mechanics paid on a commission basis, than in a complete loss of pay because of lay-off. Mechanics are more likely to be laid off in the winter months in small northern towns than elsewhere, but even in the northern part of the country most repair shops employ a fairly steady force throughout the year. Less frequent utilization of passenger cars during the winter months in these States is partly offset by the additional stress to which vehicles are subjected in cold weather. Passenger cars nowadays are rarely stored for the entire winter, since better roads and speedy removal of snow, together with the widespread use of heaters and general improvement of passenger cars, have made possible increased winter driving. Furthermore, trucks, busses, taxis, and local delivery vehicles operate to about the same extent in all types of weather, and consequently require additional repair servicing in the colder months. There is usually a slight increase in activity during the spring in most parts of the country, because of motorists' preparation for vacation travel, and extra temporary help may then be hired in some instances.

OTHER WORKING CONDITIONS

The lack of uniformity in earnings and working conditions in the automotive-maintenance industry may be attributed at least in part to the fact that unionization is not very extensive, which in turn is due partly to the wide dispersal of automotive-repair shops and the prevalence of shops employing only a few automobile mechanics. Of 3,083 automotive-repair establishments surveyed by the Bureau in 1943, only 13 percent had union agreements covering substantial proportions of the employees. The highest proportion of unionization was found in the Pacific region, where almost 40 percent of the establishments were covered by union agreements. The major unions for automobile mechanics are the United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (CIO), the bulk of whose

membership is concentrated in and around Detroit, and the International Association of Machinists (AFL), which has locals in many parts of the country. In addition, automobile mechanics have been organized by locals of other national unions, as well as by independent, local unions. Workers in union shops generally earn more than those in nonunion shops.

Policies concerning vacations with pay depend upon the individual repair shop. In some instances, mechanics receive either a 1- or 2-week vacation with pay after 1 year of service. Sometimes the length of the vacation is increased after 2 to 5 years of continuous employment in the same establishment. It appears that the practice of providing paid vacations to automobile mechanics became more common during the war years.

The physical conditions under which the automobile mechanic works vary greatly depending on the particular shop in which he is employed. Some repair shops, particularly the larger ones, have installed modern equipment and facilities, thus reducing accident and health hazards and also the physical discomfort which may be associated with some parts of the work. Other shops fail to provide adequate heating, lighting, and ventilation. In such shops especially, the mechanic may be subject to nausea and headache from motor-exhaust fumes. In addition, there may be danger of injury to men working under vehicles supported on jacks or blocking.

Generally, the mechanic's work is performed inside a shop during the day. However, it is occasionally necessary for him to perform emergency repairs outside the shop in the open. In shops which service trucks, busses, or taxis, the work may be regularly performed at night. In most jobs the mechanic handles greasy tools and parts, and it is often necessary for him to stand or lie in awkward and cramped positions for extended periods of time. Sound health and at least average physical endurance, in addition to mechanical aptitude, are therefore essential qualifications for automotive-repair work.

Recommendations for Protection of Migrant Workers[1]

IN JUNE 1945, at the Institute on Migratory Labor Problems, held at Princeton University, Paul S. Taylor, professor of economics in the University of California, presented comprehensive proposals for attacking the problem under discussion. In his judgment, if migrant workers are not to become second-class citizens, to the disadvantage of the entire population, they must be assured the full measure of public protection, benefits, and rights due them as American citizens. A summary statement of Professor Taylor's program follows:

(1) Recruiting of labor should be upon a unified National basis, not on a State and separate industry basis.

(2) Existing abuses in private employment agencies in recruiting workers for interstate movement should be made subject to license and regulation by the Department of Labor.

(3) Public Law 45 should be completely overhauled. That law split the agricultural labor market into about 3,000 separate parts by giving each county agent power to deny Federal transportation assistance (gasoline and tire rations) to agricultural workers. By thus freezing farm labor, it increased at public expense the volume of importations of foreign workers for both agriculture and railroads, because it reduced efficiency in the use of domestic labor. In the proportion that the domestic labor market can be better organized, importation of foreign workers for railroads and agriculture should decline.

(4) Camps now operated for foreign seasonal workers and migrant agricultural workers by the War Food Administration (now Department of Agriculture) should be preserved and made the responsibility of the Department of Labor. The law which requires the Farm Security Administration to dismantle the camps should be changed to keep them operating when the need is increasing.

(5) The U. S. Department of Labor should reserve surplus war housing, including trailer housing, that is suitable for farm laborers. State labor departments could set up community housing arrangements, providing for purchase by workers who wish to settle. "Care will be necessary, especially in agriculture, to avoid reviving through careless property disposal, the discredited system of company housing."

(6) Agricultural laborers on industrialized farms, many of them migratory, should have the same benefits, under State and Federal laws, as those accorded other industrial workers, namely: Social security, fair labor standards, and labor relations legislation. Jamaican and other foreign laborers imported to work in wartime agriculture and transportation were given, by international agreement, special guaranties of wages, hours, employment, medical care, housing, and organization. These standards threw into high relief our failure to establish comparable standards for our own people.

(7) Care must be taken that industrial migrants across State lines are not disadvantaged under existing unemployment compensation and other protective legislation.

(8) Agricultural extension services, including home economics and similar programs, should be extended to workers including the migrants, as well as farm owners.

(9) The Interstate Commerce Commission should be given legal power to supervise trucks and other vehicles used to haul laborers across State lines.

[1] Bulletin of the National Consumers' League (Cleveland, Ohio), Fall, 1945 (p 3).

(10) States which have not already done so should enact legislation to assure collection of wages, to regulate the labor of women and children wage earners, and to provide workmen's compensation and State inspection of private labor camps, particularly among agricultural migrants.

(11) Health and medical care should be brought by State and Federal legislation to migrants.

(12) "Long ago this Nation decided that education was not a matter to be left to the economic ability of each child's parents to provide it." Laws are necessary in many States and school districts to make this principle effective among the children of migratory workers.

(13) Settlement laws, which require varying periods of residence as a condition of receiving public assistance, strike migrants with full force. First, as well as costly last, the Federal Government should adopt a program of making its financial assistance conditional upon abolition of State settlement laws.

(14) Steps should be taken to avoid disenfranchisement of a class because its members move in search of work. Many States have already recognized this by provision for absentee voting by mail.

(15) Migration is affected by wise planning concerning the location of industry, the tenure, stability, and size of the agricultural population, and fullness of employment. Citizens should begin now to study their own communities in order to ascertain and support policies which will ameliorate the situation both at home and throughout the country.

Attitudes Toward Australian Commonwealth Employment Service[1]

AT A meeting with organized employer and trade-union representatives convened by the Australian Minister of Labor and National Service, employer representatives went on record in the fall of 1945 as opposing the establishment of a Commonwealth Employment Service. No advantage was seen by this group in removing employment-service functions from the jurisdiction of the States, which were responsible for such services prior to the war. However, it was felt that if the Federal Government decided to carry on this work, the members of the employer associations represented [2] would cooperate on a voluntary basis provided there is "no compulsion as to notification of jobs; no compulsion as to employment; no compulsion as to any person taking any job, and no compulsion as to any employer employing any person he chooses." The Minister of Labor and National Service and his advisers gave assurances that no compulsion was intended and accepted the offer of voluntary cooperation.

Representatives of the large trade-union federation, Australasian Council of Trade Unions, "advocated recognition of the Commonwealth Employment Service as a prerequisite to the policy of full employment."

The representatives of employer organizations also rejected the Minister's proposal for the establishment of advisory committees of employers and employees in connection with the Commonwealth Employment Service, on the ground that the Government itself should take the sole responsibility for the efficiency of the administrative department. On this question the trade-union representatives were in agreement with the Government. If, as seems likely, the Government acts and such committees are formed, the employers will again consider the question of nominating representatives.

[1] Information is from the Employers' Review (Sydney) September 29, 1945 (p. 16).

[2] The employer participants represented the Associated Chambers of Commerce of Australia, the Associated Chambers of Manufacturers of Australia, the Metal Trades Employers' Association, and the Australian Council of Employers' Federations.

Women in Industry

U. S. Women's Bureau Recommendations on "Rate for the Job" Principle

THE following recommendations by the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, on the further extension of the "rate for the job" principle were issued by that agency in November 1945:

"The Women's Bureau believes that the rate-for-the-job principle now should be much more fully extended, not only as a matter of justice to women workers, but because such a policy will assist in stabilizing the American postwar economy and will increase the general economic well-being of the country.

"Development of wage rates for women workers, based on objective appraisals of the content of the jobs they perform, requires a complete review of the historical and traditional underrating of women's skills, which in the past has had the disastrous economic effects referred to above.

"The Women's Bureau therefore recommends that the National War Labor Board and the Regional Boards should, in all cases coming before them in which this question is involved.

"(1) Establish the principle of rate for the job on the basis of objective appraisals of the content of jobs, regardless of the sex of the worker.

"(2) Direct that suitable machinery be set up to carry out this principle to the fullest extent, in which machinery it is assumed adequate provision will exist for full union participation in final determinations of rate for the job."

Earnings of Women and Male Minors in New York Retail Stores, 1945

MEDIAN hourly earnings for women, ranging from 44.5 cents in variety stores to 69.4 cents in women's ready-to-wear stores were disclosed in a New York study covering the week including April 30, 1945; median earnings were 56.5 cents. For male minors the range was 44.3 to 56.6 cents and the median hourly earnings 54.4 cents.

The survey was made in order to obtain for the New York State Retail Minimum Wage Board data on changes in wages from 1944 to 1945. Investigators from the New York State Department of Labor visited retail stores in Syracuse, Buffalo, and New York City in May 1945, and covered the week including April 30. In the 121

stores covered in the survey, wage and hour data were obtained for 2,583 women and male minors. The figures for the 2 years are from identical stores visited in 1944 and 1945.[1]

Earnings of Women

From 1944 to 1945 in the variety stores and other stores visited wages increased considerably, averaging 44.5 cents per hour in variety stores in April 1945 as compared to 40 cents in March 1944—a percentage increase of 11 percent. In women's ready-to-wear shops, the rise was 13 percent; in department stores, 8 percent; in food shops, 11 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Hourly Earnings of Women in Identical Retail Stores, by Type of Store, New York State, 1944–45*

Hourly earnings	Total		Grocery, meat, fish, etc.		Department		Variety		Women's ready-to-wear	
	1945	1944	1945	1944	1945	1944	1945	1944	1945	1944
	Percentage distribution									
Under 30 cents	0.1	0.1	----	----	0.1	----	----	----	0.2	0.2
Under 40 cents	5.1	20.5	2.8	5.5	2.7	11.2	11.1	50.2	2.7	3.0
Under 50 cents	32.8	43.7	15.7	22.5	23.4	35.0	72.0	83.3	7.6	14.3
Under 60 cents	57.1	70.9	40.3	59.3	56.8	69.9	87.8	93.5	26.1	46.9
Under 80 cents	85.9	91.6	84.9	93.0	85.2	89.8	98.4	99.3	72.0	83.4
80 cents and over	14.1	8.4	15.1	7.0	14.8	10.2	1.6	0.7	28.0	16.6
Number of women reporting	1,985	1,989	179	201	798	773	558	588	450	427
Median hourly earnings (in cents)	56.5	51.9	62.9	56.7	57.5	53.2	44.5	40.0	69.4	61.2

In both 1944 and 1945 the median hours worked by women in identical stores were 40, three out of five women working 40 hours or over.

Median weekly hours were approximately the same in both years in the different establishments covered, with the exception of the variety stores in which the median hours declined from 32.9 in 1944 to 29.5 in 1945. This reduction can be explained largely by the greater number of women working short hours.

Weekly earnings.—For all 121 stores, median weekly earnings for the 1,985 women reporting rose from $19.80 in 1944 to $21.69 in 1945. Increases in median earnings were reported for different types of stores, as shown in the following statement:

	1945	*1944*
Grocery, meat, fish, etc	$27.31	$24.71
Department stores	21.87	20.29
Variety stores	13.15	12.30
Women's ready-to-wear shops	26.63	23.60

Earnings of Male Minors

Hourly wages of male minors in 1945 were above the 1944 figures in all types of retail stores, with the exception of variety stores. The proportion of male minors earning under 40 cents per hour decreased from 7 percent in 1944 to 2 percent in the following year.

[1] New York State Department of Labor. Changes in Wages and Hours of Women and Male Minors Between 1944 and 1945, in Identical Retail Stores. New York, June 1945.

Table 2 gives the distribution of the hourly earnings of 597 boys by type of retail establishment.

TABLE 2.—*Hourly Earnings of Male Minors in Identical Retail Stores, by Type of Store, New York State, 1944–45*

Hourly earnings	All stores		Grocery, meat, fish, etc.		Department		Variety		Women's ready-to-wear	
	1945	1944	1945	1944	1945	1944	1945	1944	1945	1944
	Percentage distribution									
Under 30 cents	0.2	------	1.7	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Under 40 cents	2.0	6.5	13.7	18.3	------	4.7	20.0	12.0	------	1.8
Under 50 cents	21.3	31.5	25.8	46.5	26.2	27.2	65.0	68.0	2.0	23.4
Under 60 cents	75.4	84.3	55.1	78.9	75.7	80.2	90.0	88.0	80.4	96.4
Under 80 cents	95.3	99.1	91.4	98.6	97.0	98.8	100.0	100.0	92.2	100.0
80 cents and over	4.7	.9	8.6	1.4	3.0	1.2	------	------	7.8	------
Number of male minors reporting	597	460	58	71	366	253	20	25	153	111
Median hourly earnings (in cents)	54.4	52.0	56.3	50.6	53.5	52.5	44.3	45.5	56.6	52.1

Three out of every four of the 598 male minors included in the study worked less than 24 hours per week.

Housing Conditions

Housing Conditions in Canada

OVERCROWDING is the most acute problem of Canadian households, but there are also deficiencies as regards light, heat, and running water, according to a recent report based on a sample survey of the housing conditions made under the auspices of a private manufacturing company.[1] The sample studied was selected from among middle- and low-income groups occupying houses valued at $4,000 or less on a normal prewar valuation—in towns or cities houses for which rent was less than $40 monthly, and in rural areas families living on farms of 200 acres or less. The living arrangements of the 18 percent of population having higher incomes were not analyzed, as it was assumed by those responsible for the investigation that they could afford to buy whatever they needed.

Overcrowding of Dwellings

The average Canadian house studied had a fraction over 1 room per occupant when kitchens and living rooms were included in the number of rooms. Owing to crowding, some residents slept in rooms other than bedrooms in 12 percent of urban homes, in nearly 10 percent of village houses, and in 4 percent of the farm homes covered. Cots in kitchens and couches and let-down beds in living rooms and dining rooms were used.

The problem presented was that of rearranging the existing floor area as well as of increasing total space. To meet the problem, occupants in rural districts tended to plan the repair, overhaul, or enlargement of existing dwellings, whereas the desire of urban families was to buy or build homes when the wartime scarcities and shortages were overcome. However, over half of those questioned in cities, towns, and on farms and nearly three-fifths of those in villages had no definite remedial plans. Considerable numbers of those without such plans were in the minimum-income groups; they knew what changes they wanted but foresaw no prospect of financing improvements at the existing income levels.

Use of Space

Living rooms were found in 95 percent of the units; however, the center of family activity was in the kitchens, where most of the families cooked and ate and also washed, bathed, and, in some cases, slept. For example, 3 out of 4 families ate in the kitchen the year

[1] Lever Bros., Ltd., Lever House, Toronto, issued a series of press releases on its Canadian Homes Survey under dates of June 14, July 19, August 16, and October 4, 1945, from which the housing information was summarized.

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round, although 60 percent of them had dining rooms. Over half did their family washing in the kitchen and, in winter, 1 in every 7 families dried the laundry there. Kitchens were also used for storage of such things as vacuum cleaners, soiled laundry, washing machines, tubs, and food.

Mechanical Devices

One in every 5 urban families had neither ice nor mechanical refrigeration at any season of the year, as compared with 2 out of 5 among village families and 2 out of 3 on farms. Among urban dwellings 7 out of 10 had furnaces; in rural and farm areas 2 out of 5 had furnaces or improvised central heating plants. Half of the farm houses had electric power, but in 6 out of 7 cooking was done on wood or coal ranges. In cities, gas and electricity were almost universal, yet 1 woman in every 3 cooked with coal or wood.

Artificial light was required in daytime in some room of 27 percent of the city houses, 17 percent in small towns, and 7 percent on farms. In the kitchen—the most used room—14 percent of all families needed artificial light. Even on farms, 1 kitchen in every 20 was entirely dependent on artificial light.

Urban and village housewives gave kitchen cabinet, cupboard, or pantry space the highest priority among their needs. On farms, kitchen sinks, running water, or hot water were rated first; the same items were second on the lists of village housewives and third in cities.

Plumbing Facilities

The desire for running and hot water varied directly with the presence or lack of such facilities. Running water was available in 96 percent of urban homes, 72 percent of village dwellings, and 37 percent of farms. Percentages of units without *hot* running water either in winter or summer were 26, 57, and 80 percent, respectively.

It was concluded in the report under review that if the situation with respect to running water were improved, more houses would have flush toilets. Even in cities and towns, 6 percent of the people surveyed were without this basic necessity. In villages almost half the families, and on farms almost three-quarters did not have such equipment. Bathtubs were lacking for 18 percent of the families in cities, 54 percent of those in towns, and 75 percent of those on farms.

Temporary Housing Measures in France[1]

WHILE developing extensive plans for housing reconstruction, the French Government has been compelled to undertake emergency measures to shelter homeless citizens.

Legislation for compensating owners for war damage to property was adopted in 1940–44 and in April 1945,[2] and comprehensive reconstruction plans were outlined as early as November 1944. The Government has also recently provided for a central committee on

[1] Data are from French Press and Information Service (New York), Series III, November 24, 1945; reports from United States Embassy, Paris, by H. C. O'Brien, industrial specialist, Foreign Economic Administration, October 20, 1945 (No. 156), and W. L. Gooch, senior economic analyst, November 13, 1945 (No. 173); and Journal Officiel de la République Française, August 11 and 14, September 10 and 11, and October 19, 1945.

[2] For details, see Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (p. 927).

architecture and for town-planning groups in various regions, and has authorized housing construction by the State and State-aided reconstruction associations during 1945 and 1946. Preliminary work for building reconstruction, such as the removal of rubble and mines, was started as each area was liberated. By August 1945 more than half the total of 175 million cubic yards of rubble had been cleared away, 6 million mines had been removed from an area of some 272,000 acres, and repairs had been completed on 191,000 slightly damaged houses. However, large-scale reconstruction has been retarded by shortages of building materials and the operation of priorities for the restoration of transportation, communication, etc. In the autumn of 1945, housing was still seriously inadequate.

Housing Conditions

In Rouen, for example, where 2,420 out of 17,750 buildings were entirely destroyed and 3,500 partially destroyed, the housing of bombed-out and displaced people had been a heavy burden for the city administration from the autumn of 1944. In November 1945, it was estimated that 20,000 families from a prewar population of 220,000 as well as 15,000 families in nearby towns and villages, would be without adequate housing in the winter of 1945–46. Some families of four or more persons were living in single, small cellar rooms; some families with six or seven children cooked and ate in one room and slept in an adjoining dark room with shutters closed to keep out the weather. An inspection of makeshift housing revealed bad sanitation and explained, to a considerable degree, the decline in general health, especially that of children.

Construction of State-supported housing had begun in Rouen. In a block of 14 cement and stucco houses, nearing completion, each house had two apartments of 3 or 4 rooms, with sewer and water connections, shower bath, etc. Poorer and larger families were to have priority in such dwellings.

Temporary Measures

Construction.—To meet immediate needs, the French Government purchased from the United States certain prefabricated housing units which were originally manufactured for use in England. Late in October 1945, Rouen was using 12 barracks shipped to France under lend-lease; these were of light construction, with small windows. Elsewhere, barracks and other temporary housing were constructed from salvaged materials, fiberboard, asphalt, etc. In devastated Saint-Nazaire, a large project consisted of family units of 530 to 630 square feet each, equipped with unfinished furniture, mattresses, and sleeping bags. Wherever possible, Allied military barracks and those built to care for returning prisoners were turned over for conversion into family living quarters.

Control and requisition.—To assure a better division of the available facilities in regions where a housing crisis existed, legislation of October 11, 1945, provided temporary controls which might be effective until December 31, 1948. A national consultative council composed of members of the Ministries of the Interior, National Economy, Justice, and Public Health and of representatives of the association of mayors, of the national union of family associations, and of war victims

(*sinistrés*) was established at the Ministry of Reconstruction and Town Planning. The creation of municipal housing services with power to requisition was authorized. In each department, the prefect was to draw up a list of communes in which the municipal housing service was to survey local housing and determine the number of units vacant, unoccupied, or insufficiently occupied, according to standards for vacancy and insufficient occupancy, which were also set by decree. On the recommendation of the housing service and the approval of the mayor, the prefect could order the requisition, for 6 months, of housing units declared vacant, unoccupied, or insufficiently occupied.

To stimulate individual initiative in this necessary rearrangement of housing facilities, graduated taxes were imposed for each room held in excess of those deemed sufficient. Persons who gave up their residences in towns where the State had temporary housing barracks were to receive a reward equal to half the saving thus made by the State. Liberal provisions of the legislation permitted proprietors to finance rearrangements in order to make better use of existing buildings. Returned prisoners and deportees, persons deprived of homes by war damage, certain workers in State service, and those with special family needs were to have preference in housing.

Housing Subsidies in Switzerland[1]

THE conditions under which housing subsidies may be given by the Federal Government in Switzerland in order to create work to prevent unemployment during postwar crises were outlined on October 5, 1945, in an ordinance of the Federal Military, or War, Department. Federal aid, ranging in amount from 10 to 15 percent of building costs, was to be given as far as possible in accordance with national, regional, and local housing plans.

The ordinance provided that construction of dwellings was to be encouraged only to the extent that it was necessary to meet current needs and create an appropriate reserve. Preference with regard to subsidies must be given, under terms of the ordinance, to simple construction adapted to the use of large or needy families, the replacement of unsanitary habitations, the amelioration of poverty, or the provision of housing for people who would otherwise leave the country.

Federal subsidies were generally to be limited to 10 percent of the cost of construction, not including the cost of acquiring land and building rights, indemnities due to third parties, interest on loans for construction, and taxes. If proper expenses for construction exceeded 10,000 francs per room, the amount in excess was not to be considered in granting aid.

The Federal subsidy might amount to 15 percent of the cost of construction, however, if the dwellings contained at least 4 rooms and were built by the community or by public utilities controlled by public authorities for the use of large families or persons in need. Federal aid up to 30 percent of total cost might be given for the purpose of making old dwelling quarters sanitary. If the work was not undertaken by the Canton itself, Federal aid was to be given only to the amount given by the Canton.

[1] Data are from midmonthly labor report of Dorothy M. Sells, labor attaché, United States Legation, Bern, October 15, 1945, transmitted in report No. 12947, November 9, 1945, from Leland Harrison, United States Minister.

Industrial Injuries

Industrial Injuries in Manufacturing, Third Quarter of 1945

THE number of disabling work injuries in manufacturing declined substantially during the third quarter of 1945 as employment was cut back in heavy industries, but the injury-frequency rate for employees still on the job was slightly higher than in the second quarter.

Estimates based upon reports from over 12,000 establishments indicate that some 128,000 manufacturing workers were disabled by work injuries during July, August, and September. This represents about 19,000 fewer injuries than occurred in the preceding 3 months and about 54,500 fewer than occurred during the third quarter of 1944. The decrease from the second quarter total, however, reflects the general reduction in employment rather than an improvement in safety conditions.

Information now available indicates that about 500 of the workers injured during the third quarter of 1945 have died as a result of their injuries and that about 4,900 others will have permanent physical impairments. No estimate of the future losses which will accrue from these permanent disabilities is possible at this time. Without any allowance for the deaths and permanent disabilities, however, it is conservatively estimated that the workers who were injured in the third quarter of 1945 lost at least 2,560,000 man-days of work during the period because of their injuries.

In terms of injury-frequency rates, which reflect the prevailing hazards of industry more accurately than do injury totals, it appears that safety conditions in manufacturing were, on the average, less favorable during the third quarter than during either of the first two quarters of 1945, but were substantially better than those prevailing in the third quarter of 1944. In the first quarter of 1945 the manufacturing group of industries had an average of 17.3 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked. In the second quarter the average frequency rate fell to 16.9. The highest monthly frequency rate in the first half of the year was 17.5 for the month of February. In the third quarter, however, the monthly frequency rates were 18.2 for July, 17.4 for August, and 18.3 for September, with an average of 18.0 for the 3-month period. The third-quarter average was slightly lower than the average of 18.4 for the full year of 1944 and was well below the average of 19.6 for the third quarter of 1944.

The rise in the all-manufacturing frequency rate during the third quarter reflects an upward movement in the frequency rates for a number of industry classifications in which employment is large. In contrast, the industry classifications for which decreases were reported were primarily activities in which employment is relatively small.

Among the 118 industry classifications for which both second- and third-quarter frequency rates were available there were 49 which had significantly higher rates in the third quarter than in the second and 21 for which significant decreases were recorded.

Cumulative injury-frequency rates covering the first 9 months of 1945, which present the most accurate picture of general safety conditions in the various classifications of manufacturing, ranged from an average of 4.3 disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked in the electric-lamp industry to 55.3 in the sawmill industry. The explosives industry, with a 9-month average of 4.6, was the only other classification having a cumulative rate of less than 5. The rates of 5.2 for plants manufacturing women's and children's clothing and 5.4 for the synthetic-rubber industry, however, were only slightly higher. At the other end of the scale the plants combining sawmill and planing-mill operations had a cumulative frequency rate of 53.0, iron foundries had a rate of 45.3, the dairy-products industry 44.8, and plywood mills 42.5.

In the following table are listed the injury-frequency rates for various specific manufacturing industries during each month of the third quarter of 1945 along with averages for the quarter, for the first 9 months of 1945, and for the full year of 1944.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rate[1] *for Selected Manufacturing Industries, Third Quarter of 1945, wtih Cumulative Rates for 1945*—Continued

Industry[2]	Third quarter					Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments[3]	Frequency rate[4] for—				Cumulative, Jan.–Sept. 1945[4]	1944: Annual
		July	August	September	Third quarter		
Apparel:							
Clothing, men's and boy's	433	9.1	6.3	6.9	7.4	8.4	9.2
Clothing, women's and children's	338	4.0	3.2	5.7	4.3	5.2	4.8
Trimmings and fabricated textile products, not elsewhere classified	88	14.9	12.6	13.9	13.8	19.7	(5)
Chemicals:							
Compressed and liquefied gases	54	10.9	9.6	3.4	8.1	10.2	(5)
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	85	18.9	17.0	14.1	16.7	16.7	18.6
Explosives	62	9.1	4.1	4.0	6.1	4.6	5.3
Industrial chemicals	188	14.4	13.7	14.2	14.1	12.8	(5)
Paints, varnishes, and colors	66	16.7	18.3	20.1	18.4	16.8	18.3
Plastic materials, except rubber	16	4.6	8.3	5.9	6.2	6.1	(5)
Soap and glycerin	65	11.4	5.4	11.8	9.5	10.7	15.0
Synthetic rubber	23	4.7	4.6	8.0	5.7	5.4	(5)
Synthetic textile fibers	23	5.4	8.2	6.3	6.6	6.9	9.0
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified	81	12.9	16.2	12.9	14.1	16.0	15.7
Electrical equipment:							
Automotive electrical equipment	17	8.8	15.6	11.7	11.7	11.7	(5)
Batteries	30	19.6	20.8	18.6	19.7	20.5	(5)
Communication and signaling equipment except radio	36	5.7	5.8	7.9	6.3	6.6	(5)
Electrical appliances	18	12.2	11.7	10.6	11.5	12.7	(5)
Electrical equipment for industrial use	305	8.7	8.5	9.9	9.0	8.7	(5)
Electric lamps (bulbs)	17	6.2	4.5	5.5	5.3	4.3	(5)
Insulated wire and cable	27	15.8	22.3	15.9	18.0	17.1	(5)
Radios and phonographs	207	6.5	6.1	6.2	6.3	7.2	9.2
Electrical equipment, not elsewhere classified	24	7.7	6.1	7.0	7.0	7.3	(5)
Food:							
Baking	23	17.8	21.9	19.2	19.6	18.9	20.2
Canning and preserving	45	40.5	25.6	27.0	30.5	28.6	28.9
Confectionery	7	15.5	9.6	12.7	12.6	17.5	19.0
Dairy products	127	50.5	41.2	44.9	[6] 45.6	[6] 44.8	[6] 29.6
Distilleries	33	22.4	13.8	12.5	16.3	14.6	(5)
Flour, food, and grain-mill products	9	30.6	21.4	16.9	23.0	21.5	31.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	425	33.4	31.8	34.6	33.2	31.7	35.9
Food products, not elsewhere classified	31	17.5	16.7	19.4	17.9	15.8	26.3

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rate[1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, Third Quarter of 1945, with Cumulative Rates for 1945—Continued

Industry[2]	Third quarter					Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments[3]	Frequency rate[4] for—				Cumulative, Jan.–Sept. 1945[4]	1944: Annual
		July	August	September	Third quarter		
Furniture and lumber products:							
Furniture, wood	91	32.4	25.4	27.1	28.3	30.9	(5)
Mattresses and bedsprings	120	(5)	(5)	(5)	20.1	19.9	(5)
Wooden containers	404	39.7	38.5	39.0	39.1	38.8	47.1
Miscellaneous wood products, not elsewhere classified	104	33.6	41.3	36.6	37.2	35.1	32.6
Iron and steel:							
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	54	26.3	22.7	23.6	24.2	24.5	22.9
Cold-finished steel	22	(5)	(5)	(5)	22.3	20.6	(5)
Cutlery and edge tools	40	27.5	23.5	26.0	25.6	25.6	28.1
Fabricated structural steel	263	31.9	32.7	29.2	31.5	29.4	35.7
Forgings, iron and steel	147	33.2	29.4	30.7	31.1	31.6	37.7
Foundries, iron	416	48.4	47.9	53.6	49.8	45.3	(5)
Foundries, steel	114	39.1	36.7	36.1	37.4	36.4	(5)
Hardware	48	14.2	14.4	18.4	15.6	16.3	20.0
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	72	34.0	36.5	39.5	36.5	32.0	42.8
Iron and steel	190	9.5	8.8	8.6	9.0	8.5	9.9
Metal coating and engraving	70	34.2	[7] 96.9	36.3	56.9	31.7	(5)
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products	141	27.7	29.5	33.7	30.1	32.7	44.7
Plumbers' supplies	33	15.6	16.0	12.6	14.9	15.3	20.8
Screw-machine products	112	18.3	12.6	12.2	14.6	14.4	18.8
Sheet-metal work	53	31.6	23.5	24.4	26.9	27.0	39.2
Stamped and pressed metal products, not elsewhere classified	235	25.5	23.2	26.7	25.1	21.9	27.4
Steam fittings and apparatus	55	19.1	23.1	19.5	20.7	20.6	23.4
Steel barrels, kegs, drums, and packages	33	31.3	36.2	32.6	33.4	34.2	(5)
Steel springs	13	(5)	(5)	(5)	20.8	21.3	(5)
Tin cans and other tinware	20	18.1	14.9	21.3	17.9	16.4	19.7
Tools, except edge tools	69	25.2	25.5	20.3	23.8	23.2	25.5
Wire and wire products	147	28.2	23.3	25.8	25.8	22.9	23.2
Wrought pipes, welded and heavy-riveted	12	(5)	(5)	(5)	20.2	19.0	(5)
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified	74	30.6	24.5	25.5	27.0	26.1	(5)
Leather:							
Boots and shoes	268	14.8	12.0	12.4	13.0	13.1	12.3
Leather	18	20.9	23.9	24.0	23.0	28.4	29.2
Lumber:							
Sawmills	88	57.7	50.8	57.3	55.1	55.3	(5)
Sawmills and planing mills combined	35	57.0	59.1	53.1	56.5	53.0	(5)
Planing mills	412	44.3	39.4	44.6	42.7	37.5	(5)
Plywood mills	50	41.6	38.9	43.9	41.3	42.5	(5)
Machinery, except electric:							
Agricultural machinery and tractors	71	21.5	20.2	22.4	21.3	21.8	24.0
Bearings, ball and roller	29	16.2	17.0	19.2	17.3	16.4	(5)
Commercial and household machinery	78	12.1	14.0	14.4	13.4	15.2	18.1
Construction and mining machinery	124	25.6	25.3	24.2	25.1	23.3	28.4
Elevators, escalators, and conveyors	23	(5)	(5)	(5)	19.2	24.3	(5)
Engines and turbines	54	12.4	12.5	12.0	12.3	12.5	10.1
Food-products machinery	48	26.3	23.3	18.3	22.9	23.4	27.3
General industrial machinery, not elsewhere classified	300	21.9	20.8	22.4	21.7	22.5	(5)
General machine shops (jobbing and repair)	145	16.3	20.3	16.2	17.7	18.3	20.3
Mechanical measurement and controlling instrument	56	11.2	10.4	13.2	11.5	11.5	(5)
Mechanical power transmission equipment, except ball and roller bearings	72	18.6	17.8	18.5	18.3	17.3	(5)
Metalworking machinery	532	16.6	15.2	16.3	16.0	15.3	16.9
Pumps and compressors	83	15.3	15.1	20.7	16.8	17.6	(5)
Special industry machinery, not elsewhere classified	102	23.1	21.5	27.2	23.7	23.7	22.6
Textile machinery	21	15.5	8.7	13.9	12.5	11.0	17.3
Nonferrous metals:							
Aluminum and magnesium products	17	19.7	23.2	22.5	21.5	16.5	(5)
Foundries, nonferrous	264	29.9	22.9	24.2	26.1	26.1	(5)
Nonferrous basic shapes and forms	19	19.9	20.4	19.9	20.1	19.6	(5)
Watches, clocks, jewelry, and silverware	21	7.2	6.1	7.0	6.7	6.9	(5)
Nonferrous metal products, not elsewhere classified	123	23.9	23.3	25.4	24.2	23.9	(5)

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial [1]Injury-Frequency Rates[1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, Third Quarter of 1945, with Cumulative Rates for 1945—Continued

Industry [2]	Third quarter					Frequency rate	
	Number of establishments [3]	Frequency rate [4] for—				Cumulative, Jan.–Sept. 1945 [4]	1944: Annual
		July	August	September	Third quarter		
Ordnance:							
Ammunition—under 20 mm	13	10.6	10.4	11.9	10.7	6.9	7.2
Ammunition—20 mm. and over	204	21.1	20.8	21.0	21.0	20.1	16.1
Guns and related equipment	40	14.0	14.2	16.6	14.7	14.5	15.0
Sighting and fire-control equipment	15	5.4	4.6	4.9	5.0	7.8	7.9
Small arms	26	9.9	7.6	8.9	8.9	14.3	11.9
Tanks, military	4	[5]	[5]	[5]	5.9	21.1	12.2
Tank components, military	28	29.2	30.0	32.5	30.1	28.2	15.4
Ordnance and accessories, not elsewhere classified	17	17.8	22.2	[5]	20.7	20.5	18.8
Paper:							
Paper boxes and containers	360	25.7	24.4	22.8	24.3	23.6	23.3
Paper	266	30.7	29.0	30.2	30.0	28.2	31.0
Paper and pulp, integrated	93	24.6	22.8	22.4	23.3	23.7	26.6
Pulp	21	34.7	31.2	41.4	35.7	34.9	39.2
Paper products, not elsewhere classified	30	27.2	22.2	26.7	25.3	20.6	21.5
Printing:							
Book and job printing	35	8.5	6.2	11.7	8.7	9.7	9.0
Rubber:							
Rubber boots and shoes	12	12.2	7.1	13.9	11.1	9.2	12.4
Rubber tires and tubes	31	14.8	13.0	13.4	13.7	13.7	15.5
Rubber products, not elsewhere classified	78	18.8	14.0	17.9	16.9	17.4	18.8
Stone, clay, and glass:							
Glass	32	15.5	24.5	22.5	20.8	15.8	18.0
Pottery and related products	30	19.6	17.5	27.4	21.3	22.7	17.9
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified	61	22.4	15.1	15.2	17.8	16.0	18.3
Textiles:							
Cotton yarn and textiles	216	15.4	14.0	13.8	14.4	13.1	16.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles	55	16.9	14.3	17.0	16.0	16.4	24.5
Knit goods	79	13.2	9.0	7.9	9.9	10.1	8.1
Rayon, other synthetic, and silk textiles	46	10.6	13.0	10.4	11.4	13.0	13.3
Woolen and worsted textiles	149	20.9	18.5	16.8	18.7	18.6	20.2
Miscellaneous textile goods, not elsewhere classified	27	26.1	13.2	14.8	17.9	18.1	[5]
Transportation equipment:							
Aircraft	24	8.1	11.4	12.8	10.1	9.0	8.8
Aircraft parts	170	13.6	15.4	15.7	14.6	11.9	10.1
Motor vehicles	87	14.3	13.9	19.2	15.4	16.6	14.4
Motor-vehicle parts	83	24.6	24.2	19.6	23.1	20.8	25.8
Railroad equipment	47	20.8	22.1	20.8	21.2	21.5	21.3
Shipbuilding	230	23.8	21.7	23.6	23.0	22.2	23.6
Miscellaneous manufacturing:							
Fabricated plastic products	38	17.6	13.7	11.2	14.5	15.1	[5]
Optical and ophthalmic goods	27	5.8	5.8	2.6	4.8	7.6	[5]
Photographic apparatus and materials	29	6.2	7.3	7.0	6.8	6.9	[5]
Professional and scientific instruments and supplies	64	6.8	5.0	9.2	6.8	7.4	[5]
Miscellaneous manufacturing, not elsewhere classified	164	14.7	12.0	15.1	13.8	14.1	[5]

[1] The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.

[2] A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.

[3] Number of establishments shown are for September.

[4] Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.

[5] Not available.

[6] The 1945 coverage in the dairy products industry differs radically from the 1944 sample. The 1944 and 1945 rates for this industry, therefore, are not strictly comparable.

[7] The sharp rise in the metal-coating and engraving industry's frequency rate for August was due to a serious fire which caused 15 deaths and 50 temporary disabilities. When the record of the plant in which the fire occurred is excluded, the August frequency rate for the industry is 42.1.

Labor Organizations

Foreman's Association of America[1]

Conditions Leading to Formation of Union

FOREMEN in the railway, maritime, printing, and building industries have been organized for a long time, but those in the mass-production industries, such as automobiles, iron and steel, and rubber, have been specifically excluded from the unions. When the production workers secured union agreements covering wages, hours, seniority, grievance procedure, etc., the status and the authority of foremen underwent a tremendous change. The powers of foremen to hire or discharge workers or set production standards were substantially curtailed. Their wages failed to keep pace with the increases secured by the production workers through collective agreements. The discrepancy became particularly apparent during the war when foremen were required to work longer daily hours and a 6- and 7-day week, without as high a rate for overtime as paid to the men under their supervision. Foremen were not protected by job security and when no longer needed as supervisors and returned to the production line, they found themselves far down on the seniority lists.

When the Ford Motor Co. signed a union-shop agreement with the United Automobile Workers (CIO), in June 1941, the production workers received substantial wage increases but the foremen did not. Also, the new agreement specified that production workers would cease to acquire seniority when they were promoted to supervisory positions. This meant that many workers upgraded to foremanships during the defense production program sustained a real loss when they were again reduced to the ranks as a result of postwar cut-backs.

A small group of foremen in one division of the Ford Motor Co.'s aircraft and engine factory in Detroit decided to organize a union. The movement quickly spread through the Ford plants, and thousands of foremen in other large Detroit corporations became interested. The previous union experience of the thousands of production workers who had been upgraded to foremen's jobs during the war accelerated the movement for organization.

At a meeting held in September 1941 the name Foreman's Association of America was adopted and a committee was selected to draw up a constitution. At the first formal meeting, held on November 2, 1941, a constitution was adopted; Robert H. Keys was elected president, Theodore Bonaventura, secretary-treasurer, and Elmer Ross, membership director.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Philomena Marquardt.

The Struggle For Recognition as Bargaining Agent

The first case in which the National Labor Relations Board decided whether a separate unit of supervisory employees in a basic industry was an appropriate bargaining unit was the Union Collieries Coal Co. Case (41 NLRB 964, 44 NLRB 165). By vote of 2 to 1 the Board ruled that assistant mine foremen, fire and weigh bosses, and coal inspectors employed in a coal mine were employees within the meaning of Section 2 (3) of the National Labor Relations Act,[2] and certified the Mine Officials' Union of America (Independent) as their bargaining agent.[3] The dissenting opinion pointed out that unionized supervisors would be in position to dominate and interfere with organization of production workers or that the foremen would no longer be agents of management.

By the time the Maryland Drydock case (49 NLRB 874) came to a decision on May 11, 1943, the Board, again by 2 to 1 vote, reversed its previous stand and refused to order an election and dismissed the petition. In 1945 the NLRB again modified its stand and directed that an election be held among the Packard Motor Car Co. foremen. The FAA won the election but the company refused to bargain. On December 8, 1945, the Board ordered the company to bargain with the Foreman's Association of America at its plants in Detroit.[4]

In New York the State Labor Relations Board has from the beginning granted foremen the same rights as other employees. The Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board, on the other hand, followed the policy of the NLRB in the Maryland Drydock case in protecting foremen from unfair labor practices, and in refusing to approve petitions for representation. In the Pittsburgh Railway Co. case (42 PLRB 143) the courts upheld the board in its decision that "a unit composed exclusively of supervisory employees is not an appropriate unit for collective bargaining" (93 Pittsburgh Legal Journal 47).

Growth of the Association

The union president became a full-time paid officer in July 1942 and the other officers began full-time work in January 1943. Recently the national president appointed eight full-time organizing directors.

In spite of the difficulties encountered in gaining recognition from employers and the National Labor Relations Board the FAA has forged ahead in the enrollment of new members and in new charters granted, as well as in establishing itself as the recognized bargaining agent for the foremen in a variety of industries in all sections of the country.

The Foreman's Association of America now has signed agreements with the Ford Motor Co. (Dearborn, Mich.) and the United Stove Co. (Ypsilanti), and a union-shop agreement with the Baldwin Rubber Co. (Pontiac). Several other chapters are operating under

[2] Under the act employee means "any employee," with specific exceptions such as agricultural and domestic-service workers.

[3] The Godschaux Sugars, Inc., case (44 NLRB 874) and several others were decided on the same basis.

[4] It is clear at the present time that a union not affiliated with any organization representing nonsupervisory employees may have resort to NLRB machinery. The Board has not yet ruled on the problem of extending the protection of the act to a group represented by a union affiliated with an organization that also represents the rank and file. However, for certain industries, such as maritime and printing, having a long and established history of bargaining by supervisors represented by unions that also bargain for production employees, the Board will extend the protection of the act.

verbal agreements or are in the process of negotiating written agreements. The Ford agreement provides that when the FAA has "a majority of the foremen in any of the company's plants or branches" the agreement shall be extended to cover all the foremen in the plant. The Ford foremen were also able to secure an agreement with the company and the UAW, providing that foremen shall accumulate seniority on the same basis as the production employees. This provided security for many thousand foremen who were cut back to production work when the war ended.

Expansion of Membership

The following tabulation, based on the union's reports of membership, shows the rapidity with which the organization has developed, expanding from the first chapter at the Ford plant to chapters in all of the major industries throughout the United States.

Date	*Members*	*Chapters*
September 1941	350	---
November 1941	1,200	---
December 1941	4,020	---
1942 convention	10,392	8
1943 convention	18,963	68
1944 convention	25,000	109
1945 convention [1]	28,240	281

[1] In June 1945 the membership of the FAA reached a peak of 32,357. The gains of about 21,000 members during the year were offset by losses of a little over 16,000, so that the net gain was slightly less than 5,000 members. Almost 60 chapters were dropped during the year. These losses were due chiefly to cut-backs after VE-day and VJ-day. With the progress of reconversion to peacetime production, the losses are already being offset by increases in membership.

Structure of Association

Foremen for any employer of labor are eligible for membership in the Foreman's Association of America. Its constitution specifies that any employees "whose duties require the supervision of other employees, or who direct work, who may or may not supervise other employees" may become members of the association after having been employed in such capacity for a period of not less than 30 days. Supervisory employees who help in formulating management policy are not eligible for membership; no person may be disqualified for membership on account of race, religion, nationality, sex, or political views or opinions. Honorary membership is forbidden. Transfer cards from one chapter to another are issued for "good cause." A withdrawal card may be issued to any member if he no longer comes under the jurisdiction of the association. The constitution specifically prohibits the FAA from affiliating with any labor or manufacturers' organization.

Conventions are held annually, and members are eligible to serve as delegates after one year's membership. Each chapter has one delegate for 250 members and one vote for every 100 members or major fraction thereof.

The constitution of the FAA may be amended by a majority vote of the delegates during the convention if the proposed amendment has been submitted in writing to the national secretary-treasurer not less than 30 days before the convention opens. Amendments may be made during the convention by a two-thirds vote of the delegates.

Between conventions the constitution may be changed by a majority vote of the members of three-fourths of the chapters of the association.

The initiation membership fee in a chartered chapter is not less than $5 nor more than $25; of this, $3 is paid to the national office. Members' dues are $1 per month, 50 cents of which goes to the national office. The national executive board may levy special assessments to make up deficits.

Negotiations between the chapters and the employers are carried out by a committee selected by the local or chapter. A national officer or representative may participate or act as a member of the negotiating committee. An agreement must be filed with the national secretary-treasurer immediately and must be approved by the national executive board before it is ratified by the members. Notice of intention to strike must be sent to the national executive board and if the board approves, a vote of the chapter members must be taken to determine their attitude.

The constitution provides for a monthly publication, The Supervisor, under the direction of the national executive board and financed by 5 cents out of each per capita tax.

At the 1945 annual meeting held in Detroit, December 8–11, 1945, the following officers were reelected: Robert H. Keys, president; William Vallance, first vice president; W. Allen Nelson, second vice president; Elmer Reno, secretary-treasurer; and Harold M. Kelly, membership director. The convention was attended by 115 delegates, representing about 28,000 dues-paying members in 281 locals or chapters.

Labor-Management Disputes

Work Stoppages in 1945
Preliminary Estimates

PRELIMINARY estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate approximately 4,600 work stoppages resulting from labor-management disputes in 1945, involving 3,325,000 workers and resulting in about 35,000,000 man-days of idleness. Although the number of work stoppages was smaller than in 1944, the number of workers involved and the amount of resulting idleness was greater in 1945 than in any year since 1919, the year following the close of World War I.

The 1945 picture of strikes and lock-outs should be viewed in two parts: (1) The continuation until VJ-day of the war pattern of numerous spontaneous and unauthorized stoppages, mostly small and of short duration, and (2) the immediate postwar months, with several large and comparatively long and stubborn strikes accompanied by numerous small ones. Before VJ-day, labor's no-strike pledge and the recognized urgency of war production tended toward quick terminations of stoppages and resumption of work pending settlement by the parties involved or with the aid of the National War Labor Board. With the end of the war in August, however, strikes proved more difficult to settle. Whereas many of the war stoppages resulted from minor disputes, misunderstandings, and adjustments, many of those after VJ-day involved the basic economic factors of relationships between wages and prices and between wages and profits. Loss of overtime work, shorter workweeks, and downgrading, resulting in substantial reductions in "take-home" pay of workers whose standards were already affected by wartime shortages of goods and high prices, have all contributed to the increased intensity and duration of work stoppages since the end of the war with Japan.

Although only 37 percent of the year's work stoppages occurred after VJ-day, these stoppages included 47 percent of the total workers involved during 1945 and accounted for approximately three-fourths of the year's idleness. Idleness during the war months of 1945 amounted to 0.17 percent of the available working time in American industry; in the postwar months it amounted to 0.93 percent; for the year as a whole it was estimated at 0.42 percent. The stoppages after the end of the war lasted over three times as long on the average as previously, averaging 16.3 days of idleness for each worker involved as compared with 5.3 days in the war months.

Wages were by far the most important issue in labor-management disputes during 1945. Among the more important stoppages over wage issues were those involving (1) 75,000 bituminous-coal miners, in April, in connection with the renewal of the industry-wide agree-

ment, (2) over 60,000 anthracite miners in May, (3) 40,000 textile workers in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania in late September, (4) about 35,000 oil-industry workers in September, demanding 52 hours' pay for 40 hours' work, (5) 30,000 lumber workers in the Pacific Northwest during the last 3 months of the year, demanding a minimum of $1.10 per hour, and (6) about 200,000 General Motors Corporation employees who went on strike in November for a 30-percent wage increase. The question of union recognition for foremen and supervisory workers was the issue in a stoppage involving over 200,000 bituminous-coal mine workers in September and October.

TABLE 1.—*Work Stoppages in 1945, with Comparable Data for Preceding Periods*

Year	Number of stoppages	Workers involved		Man-days idle		
		Number	Percent of total employed	Number	Percent of available working time	Per worker involved
1945 [1]	4,600	3,325,000	11.7	35,000,000	0.42	10.5
Before VJ-day	2,900	1,750,000	[2] 9.8	9,250,000	.17	5.3
After VJ-day	1,700	1,575,000	[2] 15.2	25,750,000	.93	16.3
1942–44 average	3,892	1,646,000	5.3	8,801,000	.10	5.3
1941	4,288	2,363,000	8.4	23,048,000	.32	9.8
1937	4,740	1,861,000	7.2	28,425,000	.43	15.3
1935–39 average	2,862	1,125,000	4.4	16,949,000	.27	15.1
1919	3,630	4,160,000	20.8	[3]	[3]	[3]
1917–18 average	3,902	1,234,000	6.3	[3]	[3]	[3]

[1] Preliminary estimates.
[2] Annual rate.
[3] Not available.

The data in table 2 indicate the relatively small losses in working time because of labor-management disputes during the early months of the year and the heavy losses in the last 4 months when the larger strikes took place.

TABLE 2.—*Work Stoppages in 1945, by Months* [1]

Month	Stoppages beginning in month		Man-days idle (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
Entire year	[2] 4,600	3,325,000	35,000,000	0.42
January	235	46,000	184,000	.02
February	280	111,000	381,000	.05
March	380	197,000	775,000	.10
April	430	306,000	1,475,000	.20
May	425	325,000	2,210,000	.29
June	480	328,000	1,850,000	.25
July	520	322,000	1,700,000	.23
August	410	225,000	1,350,000	.19
September	550	460,000	3,675,000	.62
October	455	560,000	7,800,000	1.27
November	335	405,000	6,100,000	1.06
December	(2)	40,000	7,500,000	1.25

[1] Figures for some of the months are revised but none of them should be considered final.
[2] The number of work stoppages included for December in the yearly total is 100. The total number for December may prove to be somewhat greater when data, particularly for smaller disputes, can be compiled from local sources of information. Since the data for larger stoppages are in hand, the estimates for total workers involved and man-days idle for December are reasonably comparable with the figures for earlier months.

An analysis of work stoppages in 1945, with classifications by industries, States, cities, causes, results, etc., is in preparation and will appear in an early issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Activities of Department of Labor Conciliation Service, 1945

Of the estimated 4,600 strikes and lock-outs in 1945, the U. S. Conciliation Service assisted in the settlement of 3,085 or 67 percent. Probably the greater service was rendered, however, in helping to settle labor-management disputes before they reached the work-stoppage stage.

The Service handled 19,370 cases in addition to the strikes and lock-outs. In 2,868 of these, work stoppages were definitely threatened; 13,584 were disputes without immediate threat of stoppages; 1,147 were disputes in which the issues were handled through arbitration; and the remainder were cases in which technical or other service was rendered upon request of one or both parties.

Activities in December.—During the month of December 1945, the Conciliation Service disposed of 1,395 situations as compared with 1,508 situations in November and 2,042 situations in December 1944.

According to December records, 186 strikes and lock-outs were settled by conciliation; 8 of these cases were lock-outs. Altogether, 406 situations were threatened strikes and 594 were controversies in which the employer, employees, and other interested parties asked for the assignment of a Commissioner of Conciliation to assist in the adjustment of disputes. Three cases were certified to the National War Labor Board. The remaining 209 situations included 75 arbitrations, 10 technical services, 22 investigations, and 102 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

Cases Closed by U. S. Conciliation Service in December 1945, by Type of Situation and Method of Handling

Method of handling	Total	Strikes and lock-outs	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations
All methods	1,395	186	406	594	209
Settled by conciliation	1,183	186	406	591	----
Certified to National War Labor Board	3	----	----	3	----
Decisions rendered in arbitration	75	----	----	----	75
Technical services completed	10	----	----	----	10
Investigations, special services	124	----	----	----	124

Labor Laws and Decisions

State Labor Legislation in 1945[1]

THE legislatures of 44 States, meeting in what proved to be the closing period of the war, developed relatively little labor legislation for the postwar period. The most significant advances were made in workmen's compensation laws. An attempt to prevent a sudden fall in wages by enacting wage and hour acts or extending present minimum-wage laws resulted in the enactment of one law only, a Rhode Island act extending the minimum wage to men. Some advances were made in child-labor and school-attendance laws—gains which are particularly important, since the close of the war will make possible the withdrawal of young workers from the labor market. Some advance was made in the better organization of State labor departments.

In the field of industrial relations, only one State enacted a law of the Wagner type. There was widespread interest in legislation designed to eliminate discriminatory practices. New York established the first permanent full-time commission against discrimination, in an act which outlaws specified discriminatory practices, provides for the elimination of such practices through conciliation, and authorizes the commission to hold hearings and issue cease and desist orders to persons engaging in such practices. Somewhat similar legislation was enacted in New Jersey. Several other States provided for investigating commissions to look into the question of discriminatory practices and recommend legislation for their elimination. Continuing a trend which began in 1943, several bills were introduced which would limit the period within which workers may begin suits for recovery of wages and provide a shorter time than is permitted under most State laws for the recovery under other types of contract claims which are usually limited to 6 or 7 years. Six such laws were enacted.

Migratory workers may expect to benefit greatly under the provisions of a comprehensive law enacted in New Jersey. This measure makes the protection of migrants a special function of a division of the department of labor and creates a board which, working in cooperation with other State agencies, will develop plans for the safety, health, education, housing, and other interests of this group.

Workmen's Compensation[2]

Many important advances were made in the field of workmen's compensation. New occupational-disease laws were enacted by 4 States, and 13 States established second-injury funds to aid in the

[1] Prepared in the Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor, by Marian L. Mel.
[2] For a detailed report on 1945 workmen's compensation legislation, see Monthly Labor Review, January 1946 (p. 61).

employment of handicapped workers. Nineteen States increased the benefits in cases of disability or death, or both, and in addition considerable legislation was adopted to extend coverage, liberalize medical aid, and improve the administration of the laws.

Colorado, Florida, Maine, and New Mexico provided protection against diseases by the enactment of occupational disease laws. This brings to 32 the number of States which compensate for industrial diseases. The Florida law covers all occupational diseases, but the other 3 laws are of the schedule type. Ten other States—Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Utah, and West Virginia—made changes in existing occupational disease laws.

Thirteen States established second-injury funds, and it is expected that the enactment of this legislation will foster and encourage the employment of physically handicapped workers. Under these laws, the employer is relieved of part of the cost of total disability resulting from a second injury. The second-injury fund pays the difference between the cost of the second injury and permanent total disability, and the employer's liability is limited to the compensation payable for the second injury. There are now 32 States which have established these funds. In addition, several States already having such legislation adopted amendments to improve and strengthen the laws. For example, in New Jersey the maximum limitation upon the amount in the fund was increased from $200,000 to $1,500,000, while in North Carolina additional money was provided. The method of financing the fund was changed in New York.[3]

Legislation was enacted in 19 States which will increase the maximum benefits payable under the workmen's compensation laws. In most cases, the increases affected weekly benefits, but in some of the States the aggregate benefits were also raised. Six States—Indiana, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, West Virginia, and Wyoming—raised the amount or duration of medical benefits, and the allowances for funeral expenses were increased in Alabama, Minnesota, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Wisconsin.

Important changes were made in the coverage provisions of some of the laws. The Massachusetts act was made compulsory as to employers of more than 3 instead of 6, and in North Carolina the former exemption of sawmill and logging operators was changed so that the exemption now applies only to individual operators with fewer than 10 employees. In New York, Oklahoma, Washington, and Wyoming a few additional employments were added to the lists of hazardous occupations, and several States permitted employers who are not subject to the act to come under it voluntarily.

New York and California reorganized and reenforced the authority of the administrative agencies to meet the great increase in the volume of cases handled. Legislation relating to administration and procedure was also enacted in Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. Several States made changes in the provisions regarding attorney fees, and in a few jurisdictions legislation was enacted to insure more prompt payment of claims.

[3] For a detailed discussion of legislation on second-injury funds, see Monthly Labor Review, August 1945 (p. 284).

State Departments of Labor

Some advances were made in the reorganization of State labor departments. California, in a complete reorganization of its department of industrial relations, created separate divisions for labor law enforcement, statistics, industrial accidents, the State Insurance Compensation Fund, and industrial safety, and established a division of apprenticeship standards. Indiana established a department of labor, replacing the division of labor in the department of commerce and industries. In Maryland, the administration and enforcement of labor laws was transferred from the office of the commissioner of labor and statistics to a department of labor and industry; in Maryland, also, the supervision of private employment agencies was transferred from the commissioner of state employment and registration to the labor department. Alaska strengthened its labor code relating to administration of the labor department.

Connecticut increased the number of its factory inspectors from 24 to 30, with the requirement that of this number 17 shall be qualified safety inspectors and shall give special attention to the causes and prevention of industrial accidents. Georgia transferred from the board of workmen's compensation to the commissioner of labor the power to issue rules for the prevention of accidents and occupational disease. Massachusetts authorized enforcement officers of the department of labor and industries to have access to all records pertaining to wages, hours, and other conditions of employment which are essential to investigation.

In several States, responsibility for the safety of workers with respect to health exposures, one of the fundamental duties of labor departments, was transferred to health agencies. New Hampshire authorized the industrial hygiene division of the State board of health to investigate all mines, quarries, foundries and establishments employing five or more in which noxious gases, fumes, and dust may endanger the health of employees engaged in the processing of raw materials. The board of health is authorized to make necessary rules, which must then be adopted by the labor commissioner under his rule-making authority.

In Oregon, the State board of health, on request of the industrial accident commission or the bureau of labor, is directed to make surveys relating to working conditions about industrial establishments; the board is instructed to issue to employers written notice of conditions detrimental to health and to commence court action to enjoin continuance of such conditions. A Tennessee law transfers to an industrial hygiene division in the department of public health authority formerly held by the department of labor to investigate and remedy conditions injurious to the health of industrial workers. The commissioner of public health is required to serve notice on employers responsible for conditions harmful to the workers' health and to suggest corrective methods. The commissioner of health may resort to court action to compel compliance in case the employer fails to remedy conditions.

A Texas law authorizes the department of health to make health and sanitation surveys and studies of industrial establishments and directs it to make known its findings and recommendations to each establishment surveyed. Utah requires all labor camps to operate in accordance with rules and regulations of the State board of health.

Wyoming authorizes the State board of health to create and maintain an industrial hygiene service to investigate places of employment and study conditions which might be responsible for the ill health of workers.

Migratory Labor

New Jersey passed a comprehensive act for the protection of agricultural migrant workers. The measure creates a division of migrant labor in the department of labor and creates a migrant labor board consisting of the commissioners of labor, institutions and agencies, and of economic development, the secretary of agriculture, the superintendent of State police, and the director of health, and five additional members, two of whom will represent farmers and one, organized labor. The board is to establish general policies, approve rules and regulations and interdepartmental agreements, study the work of the division, and apply for and accept Federal grants to further the purposes of the law.

The division will enforce the minimum standards established by the statute and by future regulations. It will issue certificates to camps which meet the established standards and may close camps which fail to do so. The division will advise with employers of migrant labor as to ways and means of improving living conditions. It will cooperate with the appropriate State departments for the purpose of prescribing standards of sanitation and of providing health services and educational facilities, of resolving welfare problems, and of planning and constructing experimental State camps for migrant workers.

Wages

Minimum wages.—Of the six States in which an attempt was made to broaden the coverage of the minimum-wage laws to include men, Rhode Island alone was successful in enacting a law. Three States (Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New York) now apply minimum-wage laws to men as well as women and minors, as do also Hawaii and Puerto Rico. Wage and hour bills, patterned generally after the Fair Labor Standards Act, were introduced in 13 States; none became law. Massachusetts, by resolution, provided for a study of the effects of a State wage and hour law, by a special unpaid commission, to report its findings by December 5, 1945.

Hawaii amended its wage and hour law to increase the minimum hourly rate from 30 to 40 cents. Coverage of the law was extended to include agricultural workers for any week in which the employer has 20 or more employees, employees of street, suburban, or interurban electric railways, or local trolley or motorbus carriers, and workers engaged in processing or distributing various forms of aquatic life. Nevada increased the daily minimum wage for women from $3 to $4 and the weekly minimum from $18 to $24. South Dakota continued indefinitely the statutory minimum-wage rates of $15 and $12 a week for female employees, which would have expired at the end of the war.

Equal pay.—Equal-pay bills were introduced in 17 States; of these, the Massachusetts measure became law and prohibits wage differentials based on sex for work of comparable character or work on comparable operations. The law applies to all employees except those in private domestic service, farm laborers, and employees of certain types of nonprofit organizations.

Wage payment and wage collection.—Some interest was shown in strengthening laws under which workers are guaranteed regular payment of wages and under which State labor departments are authorized to assist in the recovery of unpaid wages. Alabama authorized the director of the department of labor to take wage-claim assignments not exceeding $50 for a single employee and to prosecute civil actions for their collection. The director may join any number of wage claims against the same employer in a single suit. Nevada requires employers to post notices regarding any payment of additional wages and to forward such wages to employees stationed away from the regular place of employment. New Mexico authorizes the labor commissioner to institute action against an employer in wage claims up to $200 in justice of peace courts, without referral to the district attorney. The district attorney is required, when requested, to represent the labor commissioner in wage-claim suits. Wisconsin requires an employer to state clearly on the employee's pay check, pay envelope, or paper accompanying the wage payment, the amount of and reason for each deduction from earnings. Wyoming now requires that wages due an employee who quits voluntarily be paid within 72 hours and that wages due an employee who is discharged be paid within 24 hours after discharge.

Statute of limitations.—The worker's right to initiate action on wage claims is vitally affected by a form of legislation which was enacted by six States in 1943 and upon which there was further action in 1945. This type of law limits the period within which workers may begin suits for recovery of wages and overtime pay. Claims for payment of wages under both State and Federal law are thus affected. Under such laws, a distinction is made between wage-claim statutes of limitation from those for other kinds of contract claims which are usually limited to 6 or 7 years.

During the 1945 session, Iowa repealed the 6-month limitation enacted in 1943 and, in a new measure, established a 2-year statute of limitations for wage claims. The Minnesota Legislature also adopted a 2-year limit; Colorado, North Dakota, South Carolina, and Hawaii limited the period to 1 year; Maryland, North Carolina, and Tennessee approved a 3-year period.

Prevailing wage rates.—Indiana authorized the State roads commission to require payment of not less than prevailing wage rates in private contracts for road work. The act further specifies that the prevailing wage rates shall be the predetermined wage rates as filed with the U. S. Department of Labor. Washington provided that hourly wages on public works must be not less than the prevailing hourly rates for the same occupation in the locality where the labor is performed and requires all contract specifications to include a statement of the minimum hourly wage rate.

Child Labor

Illinois reenacted its entire child-labor law, the revised provisions to become effective 6 months after the end of the war has been declared. The most important improvement that will be brought about by the new act is the adoption of a higher minimum-age standard. In establishments that now have a 14-year minimum for work at any time, and in several additional types of establishments, the law sets a 16-year minimum for work during school hours and a 14-year

minimum for work outside school hours. Other changes include the strengthening of the employment-certificate provision, the requirement of a 30-minute meal period for minors under 16, and limiting to 3 a day the number of daily working hours permitted for children under 16 who are attending school. Children in farm labor are exempt from all provisions of the law.

Maine raised its minimum age for employment in manufacturing and other specified establishments from 14 to 15 years and established a minimum age of 18 for work in certain occupations determined by the commissioner to be hazardous. New York placed restrictions on working hours of students under 17 years of age for work outside school hours. Rhode Island made effective for the first time a night-work prohibition for minors 16 and 17 years of age between 11 p. m. and 6 a. m. in certain establishments. Hawaii clarified and strengthened its child-labor law relating to agricultural work.

Benefits to minors resulted from amendments to three workmen's compensation acts: Iowa and Minnesota for the first time extended benefits under the workmen's compensation laws to illegally employed minors; New Jersey extended its former provision for payment of double compensation for minors under 16 to minors 16 and 17 years of age who are employed at prohibited occupations or without a certificate.

Industrial Relations

In more than half the States, bills and proposed constitutional amendments to prohibit closed-shop agreements and otherwise regulate union activities were introduced. In South Dakota, a law and a proposed constitutional amendment to be submitted to the next general election outlawed the closed shop, union shop, and maintenance-of-membership contracts. This was the only measure with such provisions to become law.

Connecticut passed a State Labor Relations Act patterned after the Wagner Act, the first State act of the type enacted since 1941. Puerto Rico passed a comprehensive industrial relations law which follows in part the National Labor Relations Act but also designates unfair labor practices of labor organizations, provides for compulsory arbitration in some industries, and requires registration of unions and agreements. Hawaii adopted an industrial relations law patterned largely after the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act. North Carolina established an arbitration service in the department of labor.[4]

Discrimination in Employment

In half the States, legislation to eliminate discriminatory employment practices with regard to race, creed, color, national origin, or ancestry was introduced. New York established the first permanent full-time commission against discrimination. New Jersey passed a similar law, to be administered by the commissioner of education with the advice of a part-time council. Indiana empowered the commissioner of labor to study discriminatory practices, recommend legislation for their elimination, and to hold hearings on cases of discrimination. Wisconsin enacted a similar law. In Utah, a legislative committee was established to study and recommend additional legislation to eliminate discrimination.[4]

[4] For detailed report on 1945 legislation on industrial relations and on discrimination in employment, see Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (p. 984).

Twelfth National Conference on Labor Legislation[1]

SHORT- and long-term policies and procedures for restoring and improving labor standards in a peacetime economy held the attention of the Twelfth National Conference on Labor Legislation meeting in Washington, December 5 and 6, 1945. Representatives from State labor departments and organized labor appointed by the Governors of 42 States attended the conference. A 2-day pre-conference session, limited to State labor officials, discussed and ironed out "differences in administrative details and procedures with a view to establishing more harmonious working relations between Federal and State staffs," according to Secretary of Labor L. B. Schwellenbach who addressed the delegates.

President Truman in a message to the body said, "State and Federal labor laws stand as a base on which we can build the higher levels of living necessary to peace at home and abroad."

The conference adopted recommendations covering child labor and youth employment, migratory labor and housing, unemployment compensation and the Employment Service, State regulation of wages, hours and industrial homework, safety and health, workmen's compensation, and industrial relations.

Employment and Placement

The conference asked for (1) immediate establishment by the States of a 16-year minimum age for employment during school hours and in manufacturing, mechanical, and processing establishments at any time; (2) restoration of all child-labor laws and rulings relaxed during the war; and (3) State and Federal legislation, including amendment of the Fair Labor Standards Act, to cover employment of young workers in industrialized agriculture. Existing child-labor laws, itw as emphasized, do not adequately protect the thousands of children employed in commercialized farm work.

The importance of dealing with youth problems on a broad front, both as to educational and work opportunities, was stressed. Some form of student aid was approved, with Federal and State assistance, to enable young people to have full opportunity for at least a high-school education. Approval was expressed of those States that have interpreted their unemployment-compensation laws so that earned benefits are paid to unemployed minors who return to school, and similar action on the part of other States wherever possible was urged.

Responsibility for "America's displaced peoples"—migratory workers and their families—should be assumed by State and Federal labor departments, the conference stated. Appropriate State and Federal committees should be appointed to study the substandard living and working conditions of migrants and recommend remedial legislation.

The conference recommended the application of all State and Federal labor laws to migrants and their families, State and Federal regulation of labor contractors recruiting migrants, regulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission and appropriate State authorities of vehicles transporting workers, to ensure their safety, and

[1] Prepared in the Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor, by Lucille J. Buchanan.

planned medical care with Federal assistance under some circumstances. The delegates opposed further importation of foreign labor and the use of prisoners of war for farm and other work such as developed during the war.

By a vote of 78 to 8, the conference opposed the return of the U. S. Employment Service to the States and favored federalization of unemployment compensation. In the event that Congress returns the Employment Service to State control, however, the conference recommended the issuance of rules by the Secretary of Labor which, if not met by State Employment Services, should result in the Secretary's directing the U. S. Employment Service to take over and operate the State service.

Among the rules to be issued by the Secretary of Labor, the conference recommended the following: (1) "All individuals shall be given equal referral opportunities on the basis of their qualifications regardless of race, creed or color; (2) no individual shall be required to accept referral to a job where the wages, hours or other conditions of work are less favorable than those prevailing for similar work in the locality; (3) referrals should not be made to positions left vacant because of labor disputes; (4) widespread counseling service should be made available for veterans and other job seekers; (5) State and Federal Labor-Management Advisory Councils should be set up to advise administrators in the development of appropriate policies." The conference favored making the State employment agency in each State administratively responsible to the State labor department.

The conference called for the extension of unemployment compensation to all workers, a liberal interpretation of the laws, the removal of experience-rating provisions of State unemployment-compensation laws, and increases in benefits to at least $25, with additional adequate allowances for dependents, for a maximum duration of 26 weeks.

Wages and Hours

Redoubled efforts to obtain a 65-cent minimum wage in the Fair Labor Standards Act and to bring State minimum-wage laws to this level were recommended by the conference. Secretary of Labor Schwellenbach told the conference that "there were 22 States without any minimum-wage laws at all." In States with such laws, he said, they did not cover all workers or all industries, but average minimum rates "approximated 32 cents an hour."

The conference recommended that State laws contain a statutory minimum rate, with authority to raise it still further through wage-board action. It urged the setting of daily and weekly guaranteed minima, rather than hourly rates, and supported higher rates for part-time and overtime work. It stressed the need for equal-pay legislation at Federal and State levels, with attention to vigorous enforcement.

A maximum 8-hour day and 45-hour week for women and 1 day of rest in 7 for all workers were recommended. The conference also accepted a basic 30-hour week with overtime thereafter as an ultimate objective.

Industrial Accidents

After considerable discussion the conference went on record in favor of Federal aid to State labor agencies for the enforcement of safety and health programs, and urged the enactment of pending Congres-

sional legislation providing $5,000,000 a year for this purpose. The conference commented that—

> Unlike those of the combat services, the tragic annual toll of industrial casualties goes on in peace as well as in war. Federal emergency safety agencies have been withdrawn with the termination of hostilities. The major burden of preventing job accidents and disease now rests with the States. Many of them assume this burden with inadequate tools. They assume it at a time when the strongest incentive for safety has been ended by the peace, namely, the wartime need to conserve scarce manpower. Despite valiant efforts, few labor departments have been able to obtain sufficient State appropriations to recruit qualified staff to do the job.

The conference also recommended that the U. S. Department of Labor work out a plan for continuing in some form the wartime safety-in-industry drives and the safety training both of industry and labor representatives and of factory inspectors. It urged the Bureau of Labor Statistics to expand its cooperation with State labor agencies in the development of comprehensive and comparable statistics on accident frequencies and causes. Recommendations of various committees for closer cooperation with BLS in the collection and analysis of basic data were accepted by the conference.

Industrial Disputes

The delegates favored close cooperation between State and Federal Conciliation Services in the handling of industrial disputes. To this end, they recommended a clear definition of policy by the Secretary of Labor, the elimination of duplication, overlapping and confusion between the two sets of agencies, free exchange of data and records on cases, and conferences to implement this program. The conference called for the repeal of restrictive State labor laws, extension of "Little Wagner Acts" throughout the States, and a permanent Fair Employment Practice Committee.

The conference urged furtherance of trade-union educational efforts and development of the educational program of the Division of Labor Standards, augmented by a labor education-extension service. It stated that sound industrial relations require the development of stable union organization which "is dependent upon the education of the membership in the principles and ideals of trade-unions. . . . The successful practice of collective bargaining requires that the union leadership be fully informed and technically trained in the principles and procedures of collective bargaining as well as the many union and community problems with which they are confronted." The conference recalled that the President's Labor-Management Conference had urged both labor and management to train their representatives in collective-bargaining procedures.

Labor Standards

A report was made to the conference by William L. Connolly, Rhode Island labor commissioner, on the work of the International Labor Conference recently held in Paris, to which he was a delegate. The conference urged that "every effort be made to assist the ILO in carrying out its aims and purposes." It resolved "that the Secretary of Labor be requested to send to the Governors of the States those conventions and recommendations adopted by the ILO where

the power of the Federal Government to effectuate their purposes is limited or shared with the States. The Governors should be asked (1) to refer them to their State legislatures for study and action in bringing their labor standards up to the world level and (2) to report such action to the Secretary of Labor for referral to the ILO."

The conference opposed the equal-rights amendment to the Federal Constitution, on the ground that it would wipe out labor legislation for women, and jeopardize family laws, and would not accomplish the purpose for which it is intended. The conference commended the progress toward coordination of all Federal labor functions in the U. S. Department of Labor, urged its completion, and vigorously supported similar coordination at State levels.

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor[1]

Fair Labor Standards Act

AIRPORT night watchman not covered by act.—The Louisiana Court of Appeals, in *Rochol* v. *Southwest Aircraft Service, Inc.* (23 So. (2d) 637), held that a night watchman at an aircraft service company whose business was carried on entirely within the State, with the exception of an occasional flight, was not entitled to benefits under the Fair Labor Standards Act. The court ruled that such an establishment is a "service establishment," the greater part of whose servicing is in intrastate commerce.

Truck driver engaged in interstate commerce is covered by Fair Labor Standards Act.—The New York Supreme Court, in *Wallach* v. *Merit Paper Corp.* (58 N. Y. S. (2d) 531), held that for the purpose of fixing qualifications of maximum hours a truck driver in the company's employ did not come under the jurisdiction of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The driver's duties were to make deliveries from the employer's place of business in Brooklyn to customers in the city and State of New York, never crossing State lines, and to make railhead deliveries, bringing in paper boxes and other products to the employer's plant. Since there was nothing to show that such hauling was part of a continuous interstate arrangement and since the complaint alleged no interstate activities, the driver was not excluded from the benefits of the Fair Labor Standards Act, as set forth under section 13 (b).

National Labor Relations Act

Company ordered to bargain with foremen's union.—In an unfair labor practice proceeding,[2] the National Labor Relations Board directed a company to bargain with the independent union which had been certified, following an election, as the bargaining representative of the foremen at one of the company's plants. The company maintained that the foremen were not employees within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act. Chairman Herzog, not a member of

[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of the significant decisions believed to be of general interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached, based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

[2] *Packard Motor Car Co.*, 64 NLRB No. 204, Dec. 8, 1945.

the Board at the time the representation case was heard, filed a concurring opinion that foremen had always been considered "employees" under the act, and that the real question involved was not whether they should join unions but whether the act afforded them access to the orderly administrative machinery available to "rank-and-file" employees. Holding that there was nothing in the act to deny foremen this protection, the opinion further stated, with respect to the position of the company, that the foremen's union was affiliated with the same parent organization as the employees' union, that it was truly independent, and that the fact that its "interests, and therefore its actions, may sometimes coincide with those of rank-and-file employees does not suffice to convert natural sympathy into partnership."

Voter must be employed at time of election if vote is to count.—The Circuit Court of Appeals at Boston[3] recently held that if a ballot cast in an employee election is challenged on the ground that the voter is not an employee, the vote may not be counted until the Labor Relations Board makes a finding that the voter was an employee at the time of the election. Although this was a consent election, the court held that an agreement may not take precedence over the requirements of the law.

The question came before the court after the employer refused to bargain. After the election, the vote challenged, if allowed, would have resulted in a tie. The Board rejected the challenge, saying the employer had waived his right to challenge by not raising the issue at the time of the election. In later proceedings the Board ordered the employer to deal with the union and on the employer's refusal the Board applied to the court for enforcement. The court denied enforcement of the order on the ground that it was the duty of the Board to make a finding as to whether the voter in question was in fact an employee at the time of the election The Board, said the court, has a duty not only to protect the majority but also to protect the minority, particularly in a case with votes so evenly divided. Since the Board cannot compel an employer to bargain with a union which does not represent the majority, neither can it exceed its jurisdiction by declaring the employer had waived his right to a finding.

Employer violates National Labor Relations Act by unilateral act to aid employees.—The Supreme Court ruled that an employer who applies to the National War Labor Board for approval of a wage increase without consulting the employees' certified bargaining agent engages in an unfair labor practice within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act.[4]

The National Labor Relations Board had certified a union representing only 40 of the 5,000 employees in the store. The company made its application for a wage increase to the War Labor Board without consulting the union on behalf of the few employees represented by it; on the ground that the union was too small to be appropriate, the company informed the employees of its application without specifically mentioning the union.

The company contended its unilateral action was the result of a desire to preserve an opportunity to contest the validity of the certification. The Court, however, ruled that such action "by-passed"

[3] *National Labor Relations Board* v. *A. J. Tower Co.* C. C. A., 1st. Circuit, Dec. 13, 1945.
[4] *May Dept. Stores Co., d. b. a. Famous-Barr Co.* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, U. S., Dec. 10, 1945.

the union and constituted an unfair labor practice. After the National Labor Relations Board has certified a union, it is the employer's duty to bargain only with the union. This is true even though the company's unilateral action was only a preliminary step and not the actual wage increase itself.

A minority opinion filed by Mr. Justice Rutledge said: "Nothing in the [Wagner] Act requires an employer to maintain a union's prestige or to give it credit for originating all proposals which may have some future effect upon its relations with his employees. Section 8 (1) forbids interference, coercion, and restraint upon employees in the exercise of their rights, not the mere failure of the employer to magnify the union's influence."

Reemployment

Scope of "position" under Selective Training and Service Act.—The Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit, reversing a lower-court decision, held that a company doctor was an employee within the meaning of the Selective Training and Service Act (*Kay* v. *General Cable Corp.*, 144 Fed. (2d) 653). The plaintiff had applied for his former position as plant doctor and, on refusal, appealed to the court for relief under section 8 (e) of the act. The district court ruled that he did not hold a position "in the employ" of the defendant. On appeal the circuit court noted that the statute used the phrase "a position * * * in the employ of" and not the word "employee"; the court held that this must be construed to include those in higher positions and those whose services called for special skills, as well as ordinary laborers and mechanics. Taking the position that the policy of the act requires a liberal construction, the court held that the plaintiff was entitled to reemployment even though (because of the nature of the work) the employer exercised practically no control over his acts. The court also pointed out that under the act the duty to reemploy is absolute, unless the employer's circumstances have so changed as to make it impossible or unreasonable to do so, and that the employer must show more than mere inconvenience.

Veteran may revoke at will a waiver of reemployment rights.—The district court in a recent decision[5] held that a veteran, entitled to reemployment rights, who accepted a lower-paying job with his former employer because of injuries suffered in naval action which prevented his doing the arduous work required in his former job, was entitled to reinstatement when his physical condition permitted him to resume his previous work. The court also held that, having made proper application for the job and having been refused, the veteran was entitled to the difference in wages, minus social security and withholding taxes, from the date of application.

Liability of Labor Unions

Union members, but not union, liable for publication of libel in union paper.—The Chicago Circuit Court of Appeals, reversing in part a decision of the lower court, held that under the decisional law of Illinois, which follows the common-law rule, a labor union may not be sued;[6] the individual members, however, may be held liable. A

[5] *Laeuger* v. *Todd Pacific Shipyards, Inc.*, D. C. W. D. Washington, Nov. 30, 1945.
[6] *Pullman Standard Car Mfg. Co.* v. *Local Union No. 2928, United Steelworkers of America et al.*, Nov. 28, 1945.

dissenting opinion took the position that the Wagner Act has modified the common-law rule, because under that act unions have become legal entities capable of making contracts.

The lower court had held there was no libel at all. The circuit court, holding that the statements in the union paper were libelous, dismissed the complaint as to the union but held the individual members liable. The statements published in the papers imputed lack of patriotism on the part of the employer and the court held such statements to be libelous in themselves.

Picketing

Temporary restraining order against striking and picketing of hospital.—Recognizing the right of all employees to better their economic status by collective action, the New York Supreme Court nevertheless granted a restraining order against employees of a charitable hospital in New York City.[7] Taking the position that a hospital, by its very nature, must do everything possible to maintain its many services without disturbing the hospital atmosphere, the court granted the temporary order but set the case down for immediate trial so that workers, whose welfare is also of public interest, might have their rights promptly adjudicated.

Limitations on mass picketing.—The Superior Court of Los Angeles County, California,[8] held that the right to picket is not absolute and must be peaceful to justify its protection. The right may be freely exercised within reasonable limits consistent with the rights of others having equal status. The picket line, said the court, is an effective means of communicating ideas and notice of an existing dispute. Peaceful picketing cannot be used to prevent ingress and egress to and from a "struck" plant by becoming a "picket fence." Equity, on proper showing, has the power to limit the number of pickets and prevent unlawful interference with the right of free entrance and exit. The court, under its equity power, thus preserves the right to picket and prevents unlawful assemblage and riots.

Revision of Venezuelan Labor Law of 1936[9]

THE Venezuelan labor law of 1936 [10] was revised, especially in its provisions concerning the labor contract, compulsory profit sharing, and industrial organizations, by a law signed by the President on May 4, 1945, and published in a special number of the Gaceta Oficial dated May 10, 1945. The amending law had been passed by the Venezuelan Congress on July 14, 1944.

Labor Contract

The principal changes or additions concerning the labor contract are the following:

Compensation must be paid by either party to the other for termination of a contract entered into for an indefinite period of time, unless

Society of the New York Hospital, New York Supreme Court, Nov. 26, 1945.

[8] *Warner Brothers Pictures, Inc.*, v. *Painters Local No. 644, etc.*, Sup. Ct., Los Angeles County, Calif., Nov. 26, 1945.

[9] Venezuela, Gaceta Oficial (Caracas), May 10, 1945 (Extraordinary number).

[10] International Labor Office (Geneva) Legislative Series, 1936, Venezuela 2. See also Monthly Labor Review, December 1936 (pp. 1454–1459).

advance notice is given. Such compensation shall be an amount equal to the wage for the notice period, taking as base the normal wage on the day when the worker ceased his work or (in the case of piecework) the average wage earned during the month preceding the day of stopping work.

Fixed-term contracts may not run for a period exceeding 1 year for wage earners nor 5 years for salaried employees. In the case of a contract for a fixed period of time or a specified job, if the dismissal or resignation take place without just cause prior to the termination of the period or the conclusion of the work, the party responsible shall be required to pay the corresponding damages. However, the employer may terminate a labor contract without advance notice or compensation in case of revelation of trade secrets, which may injure his interests, and material damage (caused intentionally or through neglect) to the machinery, materials, products, or other property.

The worker may terminate a contract without advance notice or compensation in case of any act of the employer or his representatives constituting an "indirect discharge," such as a demand that the worker perform work manifestly different from that to which he is obligated by the labor contract or by this law, or, under certain circumstances, involving change of residence, reduction in pay, transfer to an inferior position, arbitrary change of hours, and similar acts altering existing working conditions; it is not considered an indirect discharge to reinstate a worker in his former position after a trial period in a higher position or after a temporary elevation to fill a vacancy caused by absence of a worker permanently occupying the position, or after temporary transfer because of emergency to a lower position in his own field but at his same pay. An individual labor contract may also be terminated by the mutual consent of the parties, for causes validly stipulated in the contract, and for other causes for termination of contracts under the common law which are applicable to a labor contract.

When a labor contract is terminated by force majeure or through fortuitous circumstances necessitating the closing of the enterprise the employer is not required to pay compensation.

The provisions of the 1936 legislation relating to dismissal compensation have been somewhat liberalized in that when a worker loses his position through unjustified discharge or for any other cause against his wishes, or if he resigns for just cause as specified in the revised labor law, the employer must pay him, for each year (or part of a year greater than 8 months) of uninterrupted work, at the rate of one-half of the pay earned in the month immediately preceding his discharge. (Under the former provision only full years were counted, and the total indemnity could not exceed 6 months' wages.) For piecework or work done by the task such indemnity of a fortnight's pay is equivalent to one-twelfth of the total pay received by the worker during the 6 months immediately preceding the loss of job. These provisions do not prevent workers from bringing appropriate action under the common law.

Profit Sharing

Though compulsory profit sharing was stipulated in the labor law of 1936, it was not put into effect until 1938. A decree of December 17, 1938, made it retroactive in part to the date of the labor law of 1936.[11] A 1941 revision of the decree of 1938 was repealed by a decree

[11] See Monthly Labor Review, March 1939 (p. 589); October 1939 (p. 844); and April 1942 (p. 1021).

of December 23, 1943,[12] which did away in the main with the savings provision of the profit-sharing legislation. This feature, however, has been restored by the 1945 law, which amends the labor legislation of 1936 as indicated below.

New provisions or those amended are as follows: Every enterprise is required to distribute among all its workers at least 10 percent of its net profits at the end of the respective fiscal period. Such distribution must be made within the 2 months following the date upon which the balance sheet for the respective fiscal period has been made. These financial statements shall be open to examination and verification when requested by an absolute majority of the workers in an enterprise, who may apply to the appropriate labor inspectorate to appoint one or more experts (always an odd number) for this purpose.

An individual worker benefits in proportion to the amount of his earnings in the enterprise during the year, but in no case may his profit-sharing bonus exceed his salary or wage for 2 months. Seventy-five percent of his share in profits is to be paid to him in cash; the remainder, when it amounts to 50 bolivares or more is deposited in a savings account in his name in the Workers' Bank or other banking institution designated by the Federal Executive.

Savings deposits may be withdrawn only when the total amounts to 2,000 bolivares or after 5 yearly deposits have been made, except that such amounts may be withdrawn as are absolutely necessary for the purchase of, or payment of all or part of the price of a house or farm, or in case of the worker's total permanent disability, duly proven.

These savings funds may be invested in the construction of low-cost, sanitary housing and in other projects promoting the well-being, security, and advancement of the workers, designated by the Federal Executive and authorized by the Ministry having jurisdiction. The minimum interest rate to be paid on amounts invested in the construction of dwellings is fixed by the Federal Executive.

Employers' and Workers' Organizations

Among the numerous changes made in the legal provisions concerning employers' organizations and syndical labor unions, the following are the more important: Unions of employers consist of merchants or of industries of the same branch; unions of salaried employees, of wage earners, or of both, may be professional or company unions. Employers' unions may not be formed with fewer than 3 members, workers' company unions with fewer than 20 members, nor professional unions and those of persons practicing independent professions or trades with fewer than 40 members; no union shall continue to operate if its membership falls below these numbers. A company union shall dissolve upon the termination of the company by which its members are employed. The registration of a labor union may be canceled if the organization engages in activities other than those authorized by law. When an organization is dissolved, its funds may

[12] Venezuelan Labor Law of 1936, Regulations of the Labor Law, Decree on Profit Sharing (1943), and Partial Reform of the Labor Law Approved by the 1944 Congress (English translation by Gilbert Grace Cover (Caracas), March 1945).

be disposed of only by distribution among its own members, or donation to benevolent institutions or to some other legally constituted labor organization.

A member may be expelled from a labor organization for any cause listed in the bylaws, from professional unions for failure to practice during 6 months the profession or trade whose defense and betterment the organization pursues, and from company unions on account of separation of the workers from the company. The bylaws must stipulate the rights of a member, withdrawing voluntarily, to benefits in institutions founded by the union.

Workers shall be free from interference by the employer, or others, in the exercise of their right to organize or in the election of the boards of directors of legally constituted unions. No worker shall be required, as a condition of employment, either to join or refrain from joining the union of his choice. The members of the board of directors of a union, up to seven in number, while exercising the functions of their respective positions and during 3 months following loss of their membership on the board of directors, may not be discharged by the employer, except for just cause previously passed upon by the labor inspector having jurisdiction. The bylaws of the union shall designate the seven positions which shall be considered as covered by this immunity. The incumbents of these positions may hold office up to a maximum of 2 years, but shall not be eligible for reelection thereafter until 2 years shall have elapsed. When an employer wishes to discharge a worker covered by immunity, the labor inspector shall decide the matter, without appeal, within 8 days.

Not more than 1,000 bolivares may be kept in the cash funds of the union. Union funds may not be handled except by means of instruments signed jointly by three specified officials of the union. The Ministry of Labor and of Communications, through its respective officials, shall exercise special care to see that the personal or real property of the union is correctly administered and utilized.

The law as revised goes into great detail concerning the organization and especially the legal inscription of syndical organizations, including unions, federations, and confederations. The Federal Government is authorized to exercise greater control than could be exercised under the former law. A new section lists eight purposes for which labor organizations may exist.

Specific requirements must be met to make valid the decisions adopted at union meetings. The meeting must be called in the manner and with the advance notice required by the bylaws. Half of the members, plus one, must be present, but if at the first meeting the quorum is not obtained, a second meeting must be called with the same formalities, at which not less than 25 percent of the members shall constitute a quorum. All decisions must be taken by the vote of at least half, plus one, of the attending members. Minutes complying with certain specifications must be kept of each meeting, and to be valid they must be approved at the next meeting.

Labor Courts

The provisions concerning labor tribunals are revised to stipulate that labor questions not subject to conciliation or arbitration, and questions concerning the application of labor contacts, are to be decided by the Federal tribunals in accordance with the organic law covering labor tribunals and procedure.

Administration of the Law

Formal changes include the substitution in various articles of "the Ministry (or Minister) of Labor and Communications" for "the National Labor Office," "the Director of the National Labor Office," or "the Minister of the Interior," thus placing the administration of the labor law in the hands of the Ministry of Labor and of Communications, either directly or through the labor inspectorates.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wage Structure in the Machinery Industries, January 1945[1]

Summary

IN January 1945 straight-time hourly earnings of plant workers in the machinery industries in the United States as a whole averaged 98 cents per hour. Only about 1 out of 20 workers in the industry group earned less than 65 cents an hour, about half had earnings ranging from 65 cents to $1.00, and over two-fifths earned $1.00 or more. Men's earnings averaged $1.01 while women (employed primarily in the less-skilled jobs) earned an average of 81 cents per hour. A comparison of men's and women's earnings in the same jobs revealed an average variation in earnings of 10 percent in favor of men.

Considerable variation in earnings was found among several regions. In the Southeast, workers averaged 75 cents per hour, whereas in the Pacific Coast region the average was $1.14. In the three leading machinery-producing regions (New England, Middle Atlantic, and Great Lakes), average earnings were 93 cents, 97 cents, and $1.00, respectively. The interregional differences in earnings were greater for less-skilled than for skilled jobs.

Hourly pay was highest in large establishments, in large communities, and in union as compared with nonunion plants. These relationships, however, were less characteristic of the rates of skilled occupations than of less-skilled jobs. Earnings of incentive workers were distinctly higher than those of time workers in jobs in which both methods of pay were important.

During the war, straight-time average hourly earnings were supplemented substantially by overtime work at premium rates and by shift differentials. Various other benefits, monetary and otherwise, were provided in substantial numbers of plants. Among these benefits, paid vacations and insurance plans were common. Bonuses not directly related to production were paid in about half of the establishments studied, but amounted to relatively little when averaged over all workers.

Background and Scope of Study

The extension of collective bargaining and the increased participation of Government in wage administration during the war increased considerably the need for wage statistics on an occupational basis.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by Lily Mary David. The data on occupational employment (p. 268) were prepared under the direction of Toivo P. Kanninen.

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Wages by occupation constitute one important aspect of the wage structure of an industry, but there are also other significant aspects. It is important also to know, for example, the distribution of individual workers by average hourly earnings, the relation between union and nonunion wages as well as the variation of wage levels with size of establishment, location of plants, and method of wage payment.

The present report summarizes the results of a study of machinery industries made early in 1945.[2] The survey was a cross section of these industries during the war period and included all except those producing electrical machinery, machine tools, and machine-tool accessories.[3] The reconversion to peacetime production proceeds from approximately the wage structure described here.

During the war, much of the labor force and productive capacity of these industries was concentrated on equipment needed directly or indirectly by the armed forces. In peacetime they normally serve practically all of American industry, producing a wide variety of basic equipment for manufacturing, agriculture, mining, and other nonmanufacturing industries as well as consumer durable equipment. Among the consumer durable goods produced are washing machines, air-conditioning equipment, refrigerators, sewing machines, and other household equipment. Producer goods made are general and specialized industrial and commercial machinery, engines and turbines (except locomotives, air engines, automobile engines, and turbogenerators), agricultural, construction, oil-field and mining equipment, and office and store machinery. As the machinery industries employ about 5 percent of all manufacturing wage earners, their wage structure affects a substantial segment of the country's labor force.

A representative sample of establishments employing 8 or more workers and primarily engaged in the manufacture of machinery in the early months of 1945 was studied. Altogether the survey covered 2,034 establishments, with 495,000 employees, although some of the special analyses summarized here were based on a smaller sample. The total sample represented over a third of the 5,600 establishments with 8 or more employees and almost half of the 1,033,000 workers in the industry group in January 1945. The data for the survey were collected by field representatives of the Bureau, who obtained information from pay rolls or other basic records and classified workers by occupation on the basis of uniform job descriptions.[4]

The Labor Force

OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Practically every metalworking occupation, from unskilled to highly skilled, can be found in the machinery industries. The most characteristic processes, machining and assembling, accounted for about

[2] In the main, a January 1945 pay roll was studied; in some cases an April period was utilized.

[3] The scope of the present study corresponds to that of Industry Group No. 35 of the Standard Industrial Classification Manual (issued by the Bureau of the Budget) except for the exclusion of machine tools and machine-tool accessories.

Further information and a fuller discussion of the methods used are provided in three mimeographed bulletins entitled "Occupational Wage Relationships, Machinery 1945"; "Wage Structure, Machinery, 1945"; and "Industry Wage Studies, A Descriptive Statement." The latter bulletin lists other industries for which similar data are or will be available. Local summaries of wage data (forms OWR–17 and 18) are provided by the Bureau for important cities of 100,000 or more in each industry studied.

[4] Copies of the job descriptions used in the survey are available on request.

three-fifths of all processing workers in the industry group in January 1945. However, some machinery establishments operated their own foundries and forge shops in addition to machine shops. Stamping operations were found to a limited extent in most machinery establishments, but in some they constituted sizable departments. Significant, too, were such functions as tool and die making, welding, heat treating, polishing, plating, and painting.

A relatively high degree of specialization of machining and assembling operations exists in the machinery industries. As table 1 indicates, the largest single group of workers were machine-tool operators whose work was limited to one machine; they comprised about a fifth of all employees and over a third of all processing workers in January 1945. Not only were machine-tool operators generally classified on the basis of type of machine operated, such as turret or engine lathes, but frequently the grouping in individual plants was according to specific make of machines. Moreover, as operators on a given type of machine varied widely in skill,[5] for wage-study purposes they were classified by grade. Next in importance to machine-tool operators were assemblers, accounting for 8 percent of all workers. Production machinists and operators of several types of machine tools comprised only 2 percent of the labor force.

Only about half of the labor force of the machinery industries were engaged in processing operations.[6] The other workers performed a wide variety of tasks, such as maintenance of plant and equipment, product inspection, and material handling, or were employed in office jobs. Like processing work, these operations call for workers varying widely in skill. Thus, although relatively unskilled labor is needed in some material-movement jobs and in other auxiliary operations, the adjustment, repair, and installation of complex equipment require substantial numbers of skilled workers.

VARIATION OF OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE WITH SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENT

As might be expected, small machinery establishments, because of their limited scale of operation, have a labor force that is specialized to a less extent than larger plants (table 1). In January 1945, processing operations accounted for less than half of the labor force in the largest establishments, compared to over three-fifths in the smallest establishments.

Maintenance work was found to be only about half as important in small as in large plants; in the former, skilled processing or supervisory workers performed some of these functions while in the latter

[5] The specialized machine-tool operator on a specific machine tool is frequently as skilled as the machinist and, in fact, often has served an apprenticeship. Modern industry, however, has found it most efficient to use him at one machine. He generally sets up his machine, cares for it as well as its tools, and adjusts it during operation. When he performs these operations on a specific machine tool he is considered a class A worker. At the other extreme is the worker who is not required to set up a machine (the set-up man performs this function for him) but merely tends it and, when something goes wrong, stops the machine and relies on the set-up man or adjuster to put things right. Such workers were classified as class C operators. In the intermediate group, class B workers generally maintain an operation set up by others and make all necessary adjustments. This category also includes workers who set up and work at standard operations. Similar distinctions on the basis of skill requirements were made in classifying assemblers and inspectors.

[6] The proportion of processing workers shown in table 1 (44.2 percent) understates the actual situation to the extent that some apprentices, learners, and helpers as well as some workers classified as "other plant workers" are engaged in processing jobs. The latter category also includes workers engaged in semiprofessional operations in engineering departments, in experimental work, in laboratories, and in production control. Laborers, handymen, yardmen, woodworkers, storage men, installers, salvagers, washers, first-aid attendants, and elevator operators were also classified as "other plant workers." This merging of occupations was resorted to because it was impractical to classify each occupational specialty separately without obscuring the relationships between the major groups of related jobs. In general, broader occupational categories are used in this table than in presentation of occupational wage rates.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Workers in Machinery Establishments, by Occupational Group and Size of Establishment, January 1945*

Occupational group	Percent of workers in establishments of—				
	All sizes	501 or more workers	251–500 workers	51–250 workers	8–50 workers
Maintenance	3.8	4.5	2.9	2.8	2.1
Carpenters	.3	.3	.3	.3	.1
Electricians	.4	.5	.4	.3	(1)
Machinists	.4	.5	.4	.4	.1
Maintenance men, general utility	.2	.1	.4	.5	.3
Mechanics	.3	.3	.3	.2	.1
Millwrights	.3	.4	.3	.1	(1)
Other maintenance workers	1.9	2.4	.8	1.0	1.5
Supervision	3.2	3.1	2.8	3.5	4.9
Working foremen, processing departments	1.7	1.1	1.8	2.7	4.0
Other supervisory workers	1.5	2.0	1.0	.8	.9
Processing [2]	44.2	37.7	52.8	55.8	61.6
Casting	3.6	3.6	5.3	4.1	2.4
Coremakers and molders	1.9	1.8	2.4	2.4	1.2
Other foundry workers	1.7	1.8	2.9	1.7	1.2
Forging	.2	.2	.2	.2	.1
Machining	23.7	18.6	26.7	31.8	40.4
Set-up men, machine tools	.8	1.0	.6	.4	.4
Machine-tool operators, class A	4.7	3.8	5.6	6.2	7.0
Machine-tool operators, class B	5.9	4.9	6.2	7.8	8.7
Machine-tool operators, class C	4.6	4.2	4.8	5.0	6.8
Machine-tool operators, miscellaneous machines	.9	.4	.4	1.9	5.3
Other unclassified machine-tool operators	5.5	3.9	8.2	7.9	5.8
Machinists, production	1.3	.4	.9	2.6	6.4
Assembling	8.2	7.4	10.3	9.9	10.0
Assemblers, class A	2.0	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.1
Assemblers, class B	3.2	2.8	4.0	4.0	4.4
Assemblers, class C	3.0	2.7	4.0	3.4	3.5
Other selected processing	8.9	7.9	10.3	9.8	8.7
Tool and die makers	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.9
Welders, solderers, and brazers	2.2	1.9	2.6	2.8	3.1
Chippers and grinders, sand blast and tumbler operators	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.4	.7
Filers and burrers	.9	.8	1.3	.9	.4
Stamping and forming workers	1.6	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.8
Heat treaters	.5	.4	.4	.3	.1
Painters	.6	.5	.8	.7	.7
Polishers and buffers	.2	.2	.4	.2	(1)
Inspection	4.4	5.5	3.8	2.3	1.1
Inspectors, class A	.6	.7	.6	.4	.2
Inspectors, class B	1.1	1.4	1.3	.7	.3
Inspectors, class C	2.7	3.4	1.9	1.2	.6
Apprentices, learners and helpers	4.0	3.6	5.9	2.7	6.6
Apprentices	.4	.2	.3	.3	1.1
Learners and helpers	3.6	3.4	5.6	2.4	5.5
Factory clerical	3.9	4.3	4.4	2.9	2.7
Stock clerks	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.1	.7
Other factory clerks	2.7	3.0	3.0	1.8	2.0
Packing and crating	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.0	.4
Material handling	2.3	2.6	2.5	1.7	.8
Custodial (guards, janitors, and watchmen)	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.3
Other plant workers	16.1	19.2	8.3	13.4	7.4
Office workers	13.9	15.5	12.6	11.2	10.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Less than 0.05 of 1 percent.

[2] As pointed out in greater detail in footnote 6 (page 267), the proportion of processing workers understates the actual situation to the extent that some apprentices, learners, and helpers as well as some employees classified as "other plant workers" are engaged in processing jobs.

there were generally sufficient maintenance duties for workers to be employed on a full-time basis. Inspection, too, as a separate function seemed to grow more important as plant size increased. In addition, small establishments generally performed little laboratory or experi-

mental work and employed few workers in handling materials or in general labor.

A closer examination of the processing operations revealed that about half of the labor force in the smallest establishments was engaged in machining and assembling, compared to only a fourth of the workers in the largest plants. In machining, all-round machinists constituted over 6 percent of the labor force in establishments with 8 to 50 workers and less than half of 1 percent in those with 500 workers or more. Machine-tool operators, who regularly work on more than one machine, were about as important as machinists in small establishments; in the large plants they were rarely found. Conversely, specialized machine-tool operators and assemblers were a relatively bigger group in large plants. Of the specialized workers employed in small plants, moreover, somewhat larger proportions were class A workers who carried on the most skilled phases of work.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

In January 1945 about 1 out of every 4 workers and about 1 out of every 6 plant workers in the machinery industries was a woman. Office workers accounted for about two-fifths of all women in these industries. Most of the women plant workers were employed in the less-skilled operations, notably as class C machine-tool operators, class C assemblers, and class C inspectors.

UNIONIZATION

Operation under union agreements was fairly extensive in January 1945, particularly among the larger machinery establishments. About a third of the plants, employing about two-thirds of the workers, had agreements with unions involving a major portion of their employees.

Wage Structure

The wage structure of the machinery industries is discussed here in terms of hourly rates (straight-time average hourly earnings in the case of piece-rate or other incentive workers), excluding premium overtime payments and shift differentials. Incentive earnings were included but nonincentive bonuses were omitted. Cost-of-living bonuses were considered as part of the workers' regular pay and hence were included.

Occupational averages are presented only for key plant and office jobs; no attempt has been made to present separate information for all occupations in the machinery industries. However, all plant workers rather than only those in key occupations were included in the general averages and frequency distributions. All averages, however, excluded administrative, executive, professional, and office employees. The wages of inexperienced beginners, apprentices, and handicapped workers were omitted from the wage data for specific occupational groups, but were included in the general averages and distributions. The number of workers reported represents the approximate employment on all shifts in all establishments in the machinery industries (excluding those below the minimum size covered by the study) rather than the employment in the establishments actually studied.

UNITED STATES AS A WHOLE

In January 1945, straight-time hourly earnings of plant workers in the machinery industries in the United States as a whole averaged 98 cents. Of the 800,000 plant workers in the industry only 1 out of 20 earned less than 65 cents per hour (table 2). About half had earnings ranging from 65 cents to $1.00, while over two-fifths earned $1.00 or more.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of all Plant Workers in Machinery Establishments, by Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings [1] and Region, January 1945*

Average hourly earnings	United States	New England	Middle Atlantic	Border States	Southeast	Great Lakes	Middle West	Southwest	Mountain	Pacific
	Percent of workers in each classified earnings group									
Under 45.0 cents	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.9	2.6	[2]	0.1	1.0	------	[2]
45.0–49.9 cents	.2	.1	.1	1.1	4.1	0.1	.1	1.5	0.2	[2]
50.0–54.9 cents	1.0	1.0	.7	2.6	15.2	.6	1.0	2.3	.7	[2]
55.0–59.9 cents	1.5	2.0	1.4	4.1	9.3	.9	2.5	4.2	.2	[2]
60.0–64.9 cents	2.8	3.8	2.9	10.0	12.5	1.9	3.1	6.3	1.8	0.4
65.0–69.9 cents	5.0	6.3	5.7	9.2	7.3	4.1	9.0	7.9	7.2	.6
70.0–74.9 cents	6.4	9.0	6.9	15.9	7.7	5.3	10.0	8.7	10.0	1.0
75.0–79.9 cents	8.3	7.9	8.7	10.3	5.6	8.7	12.5	6.7	7.8	2.7
80.0–84.9 cents	8.3	10.4	7.8	7.4	5.0	8.5	10.0	7.2	11.9	5.2
85.0–89.9 cents	8.0	9.2	8.0	6.2	4.8	8.3	8.8	7.0	6.1	4.6
90.0–94.9 cents	8.1	8.9	7.8	5.1	4.5	8.6	8.5	4.1	10.4	5.9
95.0–99.9 cents	7.0	8.6	6.8	3.8	2.9	7.1	6.2	3.4	4.1	8.9
100.0–104.9 cents	7.5	7.2	8.2	6.1	4.6	7.5	7.3	4.0	6.1	7.9
105.0–109.9 cents	6.0	5.1	6.4	3.1	3.3	5.9	9.4	5.2	14.5	4.9
110.0–114.9 cents	6.3	4.8	6.2	4.2	2.7	6.9	2.5	9.5	4.3	8.8
115.0–119.9 cents	5.0	3.1	4.8	2.0	2.6	5.8	3.9	3.8	4.4	4.8
120.0–124.9 cents	4.2	2.6	4.3	3.1	2.1	4.6	1.4	4.5	2.8	6.2
125.0–129.9 cents	4.3	2.7	4.2	1.6	1.4	3.9	1.3	4.8	3.3	16.6
130.0–134.9 cents	2.5	1.6	2.4	1.1	.5	2.7	.5	2.5	1.5	5.5
135.0–139.9 cents	2.3	1.4	1.9	1.0	.3	2.3	1.1	2.4	.8	7.5
140.0–144.9 cents	1.4	1.1	1.2	.3	.1	1.6	.2	1.4	.6	2.7
145.0–149.9 cents	.9	.9	.9	.2	[2]	1.1	.1	.5	.3	1.4
150.0–159.9 cents	1.3	1.1	1.1	.4	.6	1.5	.3	.7	.6	2.5
160.0–169.9 cents	.7	.5	.7	.2	.2	.8	.1	.3	.2	1.0
170.0–179.9 cents	.4	.2	.3	.1	.1	.5	.1	.1	.2	.5
180.0–189.9 cents	.2	.2	.2	[2]	[2]	.3	[2]	[2]	[2]	.2
190.0–199.9 cents	.1	.1	.1	[2]	[2]	.2	[2]	------	------	.1
200.0 cents and over	.2	.1	.2	[2]	[2]	.3	[2]	------	[2]	.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	328,000	91,600	202,500	15,600	15,300	404,200	35,700	17,300	2,500	43,300
Average hourly earnings	$0.98	$0.93	$0.97	$0.82	$0.75	$1.00	$0.88	$0.91	$0.93	$1.14

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.
[2] Less than 0.05 of 1 percent.

The average earnings for plant workers as a whole are a composite of the earnings of workers in a wide variety of occupations; average rates of pay for a group of key occupations are presented in table 3. Rates in these jobs varied from 67 cents for watchmen, 69 cents for janitresses, and 74 cents for janitors, to $1.33 for men employed as machine coremakers and $1.58 for men operating large steam drop hammers (with force of 5,000 pounds or more). Average hourly rates in excess of $1.20 were relatively uncommon; most of the skilled production jobs had average rates falling between $1.10 and $1.20; the averages for most skilled maintenance jobs ranged from $1.00 to $1.20. Average rates for men in the majority of other occupations studied fell within a range of 85 cents to $1.10.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Wage Rates (Straight-Time Hourly Earnings [1]) for Selected Occupations in Machinery Establishments, January 1945*

PLANT WORKERS

Occupation, grade, and sex	Number of workers	Average hourly rate
Men		
Acid dippers	490	$0.90
Assemblers, class A	21,037	1.13
Assemblers, class B	30,437	1.00
Assemblers, class C	16,458	.87
Automatic-lathe operators, class A	1,243	1.19
Automatic-lathe operators, class B	1,752	1.07
Automatic-lathe operators, class C	1,340	1.08
Bulldozer operators	244	1.05
Carpenters, maintenance	2,976	1.01
Chippers and grinders	11,110	.91
Coremakers, hand	4,628	1.15
Coremakers, turn-over-draw machine	403	1.33
Crane operators, electric bridge	5,881	.93
Die setters	576	1.04
Drill-press operators, radial, class A	4,080	1.12
Drill-press operators, radial, class B	5,254	1.00
Drill-press operators, radial, class C	1,918	.91
Drill-press operators, single and multispindle:		
Class A	2,529	1.11
Class B	7,468	.99
Class C	6,921	.88
Drop-hammer operators:		
Board, under 3,000 pounds	241	1.16
Steam, under 5,000 pounds	435	1.30
Steam, 5,000 pounds and over	129	1.58
Electricians, maintenance	4,012	1.10
Engine-lathe operators, class A	13,786	1.16
Engine-lathe operators, class B	11,025	1.03
Engine-lathe operators, class C	4,134	.90
Fitters, boiler shop	201	1.12
Fitters, structural, class A	396	1.20
Fitters, structural, class B	364	1.10
Flame-cutting-machine operators	515	1.07
Forging-press operators, hydraulic (vertical)	182	1.21
Grinding-machine operators, class A	6,078	1.20
Grinding-machine operators, class B	8,701	1.16
Grinding-machine operators, class C	5,694	1.04
Guards	6,341	.84
Heat treaters, class A	784	1.12
Heat treaters, class B	1,978	.96
Heaters, forge—light work	312	1.10
Heaters, forge—heavy work	418	1.27
Inspectors, class A	5,938	1.15
Inspectors, class B	9,606	1.02
Inspectors, class C	5,769	.86
Janitors	11,786	.74
Lay-out men, class A	1,281	1.15
Lay-out men, class B	486	1.00
Machinists, maintenance	4,306	1.17
Machinists, production	13,040	1.19
Machine-tool operators, miscellaneous machines	9,803	1.03
Maintenance men, general utility	2,375	.98
Mechanics, maintenance	2,793	1.10
Milling-machine operators, class A	7,497	1.16
Milling-machine operators, class B	7,417	1.05
Milling-machine operators, class C	3,730	.96
Millwrights	2,824	1.06
Molders, floor	5,490	1.15
Molders, hand, bench	2,199	1.10
Molders, machine	4,612	1.19
Painters, finish	1,985	.99
Painters, rough	3,936	.91
Patternmakers, wood	1,896	1.23
Platers	559	.98
Platers' helpers	373	.83
Polishers and buffers, metal	658	1.14
Polishing and buffing-machine operators	1,309	1.07
Pourers, metal	1,002	.90
Power-brake operators, class A	278	1.17
Power-brake operators, class B	213	.94
Men—Continued		
Power-shear operators, class A	626	1.09
Power-shear operators, class B	775	$0.93
Punch-press operators, class A	1,818	1.12
Punch-press operators, class B	3,553	.94
Sand mixers, hand and machine	1,560	.80
Screw-machine operators, automatic:		
Class A	2,021	1.22
Class B	2,256	1.11
Class C	1,638	1.04
Set-up men, machine tools	8,106	1.17
Shake-out men	3,364	.84
Sheet-metal machine operators, miscellaneous machines	2,126	.99
Sheet-metal workers, production	1,981	1.11
Stock clerks	9,759	.85
Tool and die makers	12,283	1.29
Truck drivers	3,511	.87
Truckers, hand	11,132	.79
Truckers, power	3,169	.85
Turret-lathe operators, hand (including hand-screw machine):		
Class A	11,255	1.17
Class B	11,469	1.05
Class C	4,875	.90
Watchmen	3,918	.67
Welders, hand, class A	10,384	1.17
Welders, hand, class B	6,131	1.07
Welders, machine, class A	784	1.15
Welders, machine, class B	1,448	1.08
Working foremen, processing departments	17,175	1.22
Women		
Assemblers, class B	3,549	.92
Assemblers, class C	14,796	.81
Chippers and grinders	918	.83
Coremakers, hand	280	.92
Drill-press operators, radial, class B	207	.91
Drill-press operators, radial, class C	374	.84
Drill-press operators, single and multi-spindle, class A	127	1.05
Drill-press operators, single and multi-spindle, class B	1,513	.95
Drill-press operators, single and multi-spindle, class C	7,168	.82
Engine-lathe operators, class B	501	.99
Engine-lathe operators, class C	1,561	.81
Grinding-machine operators, class B	1,020	1.05
Grinding-machine operators, class C	3,452	.92
Inspectors, class A	120	1.07
Inspectors, class B	2,553	.90
Inspectors, class C	21,320	.76
Janitresses	1,776	.69
Machine-tool operators, miscellaneous machines	361	.93
Milling-machine operators, class B	628	.98
Milling-machine operators, class C	2,396	.88
Painters, rough	287	.82
Platers' helpers	220	.79
Polishing and buffing-machine operators	454	.81
Punch-press operators, class B	3,022	.80
Screw-machine operators, automatic, class B	161	1.16
Screw-machine operators, automatic, class C	303	.87
Stock clerks	2,836	.79
Turret-lathe operators, hand (including hand-screw machine), class B	870	1.00
Turret-lathe operators, hand (including hand-screw machine), class C	1,813	.85
Welders, hand, class A	142	1.16
Welders, hand, class B	897	.94
Welders, machine, class B	295	.95

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Wage Rates (Straight-Time Hourly Earnings [1]) for Selected Occupations in Machinery Establishments, January 1945*—Continued

OFFICE WORKERS

Occupation, grade, and sex	Number of workers	Average hourly rate	Occupation, grade, and sex	Number of workers	Average hourly rate
Men			*Women*—Continued		
Bookkeepers, hand	524	$1.13	Clerks, accounting	3,402	$0.73
Clerks, accounting	1,116	.98	Clerks, file, class A	580	.69
Clerks, general	752	.83	Clerks, file, class B	2,218	.58
Clerks, order	765	.98	Clerks, general	6,634	.63
Clerks, pay roll	386	.90	Clerks, order	1,222	.71
Office boys	390	.53	Clerks, pay roll	2,737	.70
Women			Clerk-typists	5,256	.63
			Office girls	819	.53
Billing-machine operators	699	.71	Stenographers, class A	3,903	.79
Bookkeepers, hand	2,121	.91	Stenographers, class B	6,153	.67
Bookkeeping-machine operators, class A	414	.86	Switchboard operators	647	.69
Bookkeeping-machine operators, class B	697	.73	Switchboard-operator-receptionists	1,538	.69
Calculating-machine operators, class A	1,085	.74	Transcribing-machine operators, class A	295	.74
Calculating-machine operators, class B	1,223	.65	Transcribing-machine operators, class B	431	.67
			Typists, copy, class A	762	.68
			Typists, copy, class B	1,641	.59

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.

The variation in wage rates for a somewhat more limited list of jobs is presented graphically in the accompanying chart; the average wage rates for men time workers were expressed in terms of their relation to the average pay of janitors and hand truckers.[7] These indexes were constructed to show for the industry, on a Nation-wide basis, the step-like arrangement of wages in different occupations. Attention is focused primarily on the spread in wages between occupations requiring varying degrees of skill and the base occupations which are unskilled; differences in actual wages for any particular group can be measured from the data presented in table 2. The variations from the average relationships are indicated in the chart by the range within which the indexes for half the wage areas fall.

VARIATION IN WAGES BY SEX

In January 1945 all women plant workers in the machinery industries averaged 81 cents an hour, while men averaged $1.01. This difference did not arise primarily from a lack of uniformity in pay for identical work; to a large extent it was a result of a concentration of women in semiskilled and unskilled jobs. A comparison eliminating the effect of differences in the proportion of men and women employed on the same job indicated that, on the average, men earned about a tenth more than women. In some jobs the difference was less than 5 percent, whereas in others it amounted to more than 20 percent.

[7] The indexes were based on data for wage areas built around cities of 100,000 or more and were derived as follows: In each wage area the weighted average wage of men employed as janitors and hand truckers was used as a base (100); the wages of other key occupations in each wage area were related to the base wage in terms of percentages or index numbers; the median of all wage area indexes for each occupation was chosen to represent the national average.

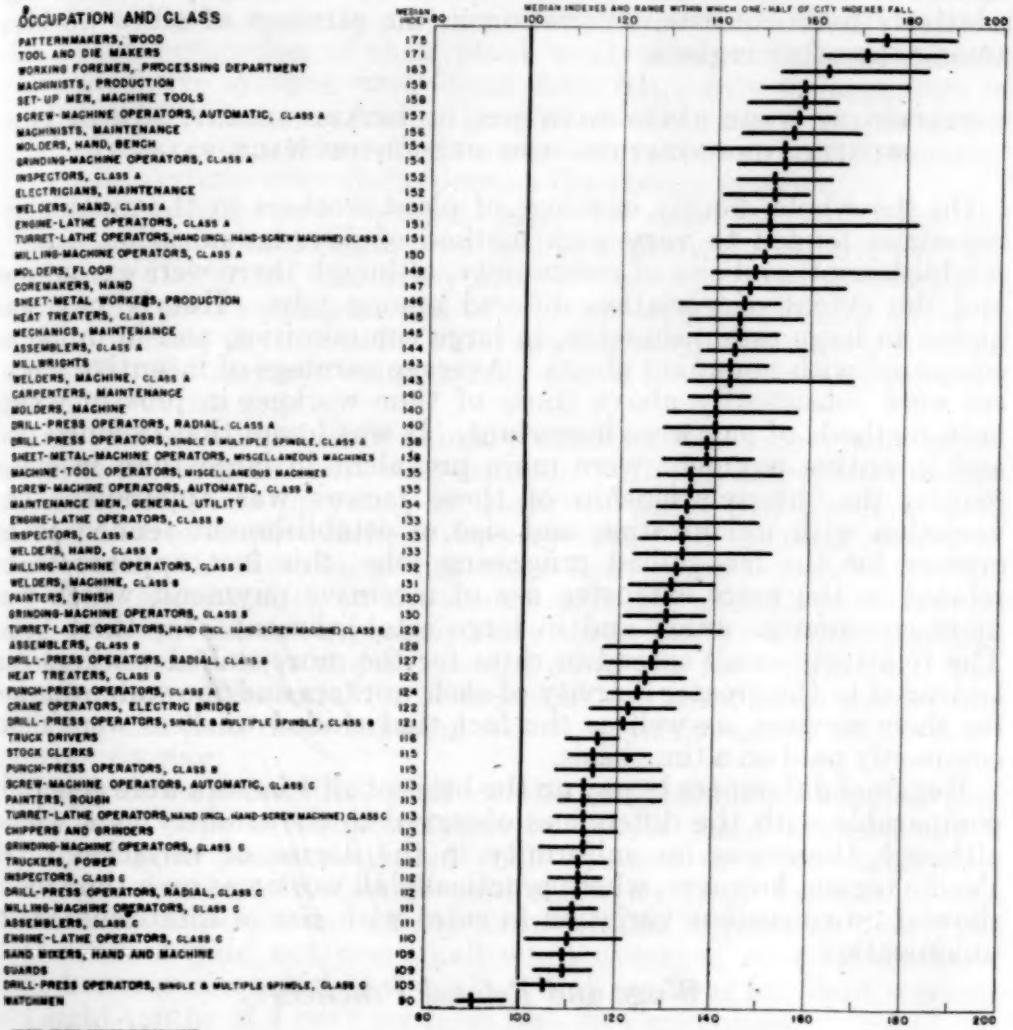
Indexes for time and incentive workers combined are presented in the report, Occupational Wage Relationships, Machinery 1945. The relationship of wages in the different occupations is practically the same for all workers (time and incentive combined) and for time workers alone. Although the indexes for time workers are generally lower, the ranking of the occupations in the two lists is similar.

CHART 1

INDEXES OF AVERAGE WAGE RATES FOR MALE WORKERS IN KEY OCCUPATIONS IN MACHINERY INDUSTRIES

JANUARY 1945

WEIGHTED AVERAGE WAGES FOR MALE JANITORS AND HAND TRUCKERS = 100


OCCUPATION AND CLASS
MEDIAN INDEX
MEDIAN INDEXES AND RANGE WITHIN WHICH ONE-HALF OF CITY INDEXES FALL
80
100
120
140
160
180
200
PATTERNMAKERS, WOOD 175
TOOL AND DIE MAKERS 171
WORKING FOREMEN, PROCESSING DEPARTMENT 163
MACHINISTS, PRODUCTION 158
SET-UP MEN, MACHINE TOOLS 158
SCREW-MACHINE OPERATORS, AUTOMATIC, CLASS A 157
MACHINISTS, MAINTENANCE 156
MOLDERS, HAND, BENCH 154
GRINDING-MACHINE OPERATORS, CLASS A 154
INSPECTORS, CLASS A 152
ELECTRICIANS, MAINTENANCE 152
WELDERS, HAND, CLASS A 151
ENGINE-LATHE OPERATORS, CLASS A 151
TURRET-LATHE OPERATORS, HAND (INCL. HAND-SCREW MACHINE) CLASS A 151
MILLING-MACHINE OPERATORS, CLASS A 150
MOLDERS, FLOOR 148
COREMAKERS, HAND 147
SHEET-METAL WORKERS, PRODUCTION 146
HEAT TREATERS, CLASS A 145
MECHANICS, MAINTENANCE 145
ASSEMBLERS, CLASS A 144
MILLWRIGHTS 143
WELDERS, MACHINE, CLASS A 143
CARPENTERS, MAINTENANCE 140
MOLDERS, MACHINE 140
DRILL-PRESS OPERATORS, RADIAL, CLASS A 140
DRILL-PRESS OPERATORS, SINGLE & MULTIPLE SPINDLE, CLASS A 138
SHEET-METAL-MACHINE OPERATORS, MISCELLANEOUS MACHINES 138
MACHINE-TOOL OPERATORS, MISCELLANEOUS MACHINES 135
SCREW-MACHINE OPERATORS, AUTOMATIC, CLASS B 135
MAINTENANCE MEN, GENERAL UTILITY 134
ENGINE-LATHE OPERATORS, CLASS B 133
INSPECTORS, CLASS B 133
WELDERS, HAND, CLASS B 133
MILLING-MACHINE OPERATORS, CLASS B 132
WELDERS, MACHINE, CLASS B 131
PAINTERS, FINISH 130
GRINDING-MACHINE OPERATORS, CLASS B 130
TURRET-LATHE OPERATORS, HAND (INCL. HAND-SCREW MACHINE) CLASS B 129
ASSEMBLERS, CLASS B 128
DRILL-PRESS OPERATORS, RADIAL, CLASS B 127
HEAT TREATERS, CLASS B 126
PUNCH-PRESS OPERATORS, CLASS A 124
CRANE OPERATORS, ELECTRIC BRIDGE 122
DRILL-PRESS OPERATORS, SINGLE & MULTIPLE SPINDLE, CLASS B 121
TRUCK DRIVERS 116
STOCK CLERKS 115
PUNCH-PRESS OPERATORS, CLASS B 115
SCREW-MACHINE OPERATORS, AUTOMATIC, CLASS C 113
PAINTERS, ROUGH 113
TURRET-LATHE OPERATORS, HAND (INCL. HAND-SCREW MACHINE) CLASS C 113
CHIPPERS AND GRINDERS 113
GRINDING-MACHINE OPERATORS, CLASS C 113
TRUCKERS, POWER 112
INSPECTORS, CLASS C 112
DRILL-PRESS OPERATORS, RADIAL, CLASS C 112
MILLING-MACHINE OPERATORS, CLASS C 111
ASSEMBLERS, CLASS C 111
ENGINE-LATHE OPERATORS, CLASS C 110
SAND MIXERS, HAND AND MACHINE 109
GUARDS 109
DRILL-PRESS OPERATORS, SINGLE & MULTIPLE SPINDLE, CLASS C 105
WATCHMEN 90
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REGIONAL VARIATIONS IN WAGE RATES [8]

Average hourly earnings varied among regions from 75 cents in the Southeast to $1.14 in the Pacific region. In the three leading machinery-producing regions, New England, Middle Atlantic, and Great Lakes, average earnings were 93 cents, 97 cents, and $1.00, respectively. Regional differences in wages were greater among less-skilled than among skilled jobs. The relatively high rates for skilled

[8] The regions used in this study are as follows: *New England.*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont. *Middle Atlantic.*—New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. *Border States.*—Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia. *Southeast.*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee. *Great Lakes.*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin. *Middle West.*—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota. *Southwest.*—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. *Mountain.*—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming. *Pacific.*—California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

workers in the low-wage regions as compared with other jobs in these regions can be traced to the greater tightness of the labor market for skilled workers there. The prevalence of incentive pay for the less-skilled processing jobs in the higher-wage regions also explains in part the greater regional variation in pay for these jobs.

Wages for selected office occupations were more uniform among the regions than were rates of plant workers. Pay in the Pacific region tended to be higher than in the rest of the country but there was relatively little consistent variation in the earnings of office workers among the other regions.

VARIATION OF WAGE RATES WITH SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENT, SIZE OF COMMUNITY, UNIONIZATION, AND METHOD OF WAGE PAYMENT

On the whole, hourly earnings of plant workers in the machinery industries tended to vary with method of pay, unionization, size of establishment, and size of community, although there were exceptions and the extent of variation differed among jobs. Hourly pay was higher in large establishments, in large communities, and in union as compared with nonunion plants. Average earnings of incentive workers were consistently above those of time workers in jobs in which both methods of pay were important. It was found that unionization and incentive payment were more prevalent in large than in small plants; the interrelationship of these factors was apparent. The variation with unionization and size of establishment tended to be greater for the less-skilled processing jobs; this fact appears to be related to the more extensive use of incentive payment, which was more common in union and in large establishments, for these jobs. The relatively small spread in rates for the more-skilled workers can be traced to the greater scarcity of such workers and the wider market for their services, as well as the fact that skilled workers were more commonly paid on a time basis.

Regional differences in pay on the basis of all 4 factors were generally comparable with the differences observed in the country as a whole, although there was no uniformity in the degree of variation. The Pacific region, however, where practically all work was on a time basis, showed no consistent variation in rates with size of establishment or unionization.

Wage and Related Practices

As a result of wartime stabilization of wage rates, interest was aroused in the methods followed by individual plants in determining rates of pay. A further consequence of wage stabilization was that "fringe issues," covering working conditions and other provisions that affect real income without raising hourly rates of pay, became increasingly important in the formulation of wage policies and in wage administration during the war. In the aggregate these practices in the machinery industries in January 1945 supplemented substantially the straight-time hourly earnings just described.

Methods of wage determination.—By January 1945, two-thirds of the establishments manufacturing machinery had formalized their wage structure by providing a written or other generally recognized rate or schedule of rates. This development may be traced in part to the wartime wage policy of the Government, with its emphasis on stabilization of rates of pay for a given job.

Although most of the machinery establishments had formal rate structures and, therefore, established occupational pay scales, these scales were adjusted relatively infrequently through a formal process of job evaluation. Job-evaluation plans were reported by only about 1 out of every 10 establishments studied. Such plans, although varying in specific characteristics, attempted to rationalize the structure of occupational wage rates within a plant by evaluating each job in terms of certain standards.

Only about a seventh of the machinery establishments paid a significant proportion of their plant workers on an incentive basis. Since incentive systems were found more frequently in large than in small establishments, a higher proportion (between a fourth and a fifth) of the plant workers in the industry were paid in this manner.[9] Piece-rate systems were more common than bonus systems.

Work schedules and premium pay.—In order to maximize the utilization of available manpower and equipment during the war, the machinery industries, like many others, resorted to lengthened hours of work for their employees and to multiple-shift operations. Accordingly, premium payments for overtime and night-shift work resulted in gross hourly earnings substantially above the hourly rates reported previously in this article.

The typical workweek in January 1945 was 48 hours, and workweeks in excess of 48 hours were common. Almost half of the machinery establishments operated at least two shifts and about a sixth operated three or more shifts in January 1945. Of the total number of plant workers in these industries, three-fourths were employed on the first shift, about a fifth on the second shift and about a twentieth on third or other shifts. Approximately three-fourths of the establishments operating extra shifts provided extra pay for such work. The most common differential for both second and third shifts was 5 cents an hour; the next most common was 10 percent, added to the first-shift hourly pay.

Supplementary benefits.—Half of the establishments studied provided some type of nonproduction bonus for plant workers and a slightly higher proportion paid such bonuses to office employees. Although some establishments paid relatively large bonuses of this kind (in certain cases amounting to more than 10 cents an hour), the total amount paid out was small when averaged over all workers; these bonuses amounted to roughly 1 cent per hour for plant workers and eight-tenths of 1 cent per hour for office employees.

As a result of wartime developments and of prewar adoption of such plans, formal provisions for paid vacations and insurance or pension plans had been adopted by a large number of firms in the machinery industries by January 1945. Paid sick-leave plans, on the other hand, were relatively uncommon in these industries.

About two-thirds of the establishments provided paid vacations for plant workers who had a year or more of service, and over four-fifths had similar provisions for office employees with comparable service. Most commonly, 1 week's vacation with pay was provided for plant workers. For office employees 2-week vacations were slightly more numerous than 1-week periods.

[9] For purposes of reporting the number of establishments with incentive systems, establishments with a fourth or more of their plant workers paid on this basis were classified as predominantly incentive. However, in determining the proportion of employees paid on an incentive basis, incentive workers in all establishments were included regardless of the predominant method of wage payment in the plant.

Only about 50 of the approximately 2,000 reporting establishments had formal sick-leave provisions for plant workers, while about a seventh of the establishments employing office workers had plans for their office personnel. About half of the machinery establishments had one or more types of insurance or pension plans for plant workers and a similar proportion reported such plans for office employees. About 8 out of 10 of the reporting establishments provided life insurance, while 6 out of 10 provided health insurance.

Union Wages and Hours in the Building Trades, July 1, 1945[1]

Summary

HOURLY wage rates for organized building-trades journeymen in the 75 cities surveyed averaged $1.615 on July 1, 1945, an advance of 1.8 percent since July 1, 1944; helpers and laborers averaged $0.997, a 4.7-percent increase. For both groups combined, hourly wage rates averaged $1.512, a gain of 2.1 percent. About 3 out of every 10 journeymen and almost half of the helpers and laborers realized gains in basic rates, with four-fifths reporting raises of less than 10 percent. A majority of the journeymen had hourly rates ranging from $1.50 to $1.80, while a similar proportion of helpers and laborers were paid between $1.00 and $1.30.

Among journeymen, bricklayers recorded the highest average rate ($1.814) and composition roofers the lowest ($1.465). The highest individual rate reported ($2.657) covered outdoor-advertising sign painters in New York City; the lowest rate noted ($0.500) covered building laborers in Charleston, S. C.

The average straight-time workweek for journeymen was 39.8 hours and for helpers and laborers it was 40.0 hours. Time and a half for overtime was virtually standard throughout the industry, owing to wartime agreements.

Scope and Method of Study

Union wage scales in various industries have been the subject of annual studies made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics since 1907. The original studies included 39 cities; the scope has been gradually increased and the current report covers 75 cities ranging in size from 40,000 to over 1,000,000. For many years the data were collected as of May 15. The survey date was advanced to June 1 in 1939 and then to July 1 in 1942. The latest change was made so that the survey date would coincide with the effective date of the national agreement[2] stabilizing wages in the construction industry.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by James P. Corkery and Herbert M. Abowitz, under the direction of Donald H. Gerrish.

[2] The contracting agencies of the United States Government and the Building Trades Department of the A. F. of L. agreed that on all war-construction work in continental United States the wages paid under collective-bargaining agreements as of July 1, 1942, should remain in full force and effect for a period of at least 1 year, subject to annual renewal for the duration of the war. All renewals were to contain the rates paid as of July 1, 1942, unless specifically declared otherwise by an especially established Wage Adjustment Board, composed of representatives from the building-trades unions and the contracting agencies of the United States, with the Assistant Secretary of Labor acting as chairman. In September 1943, the Wage Adjustment Board was reconstituted as a tripartite body and was given authority by the National War Labor Board to approve or disapprove wage adjustments in private construction work also, in line with the national wage-stabilization policy.

Field representatives working from the regional offices of the Bureau called on union officials and contractors in 75 cities and obtained the wage and hour scales specified in collective-bargaining agreements effective July 1, 1945. The Bureau obtained in this manner 2,679 quotations of scales covering 472,607 union members, of whom 78,890 were helpers and laborers.

The data in this study were based on effective union scales. A union scale may be defined as a minimum wage rate or maximum schedule of hours agreed upon through collective bargaining between employers and trade-unions. Scales in excess of the agreed minimum may be paid to union members because of long service, for special qualifications, or for personal or other reasons. These premium rates were not used in the preparation of this report.[3]

The various averages appearing in this report were based on union scales weighted by the number of union members actually employed or immediately available for employment in the building-construction industry at each individual scale. Those union members who were in the armed forces, in shipbuilding, or in some other type of war work apart from the building-construction industry were excluded, even though they were considered to be active members of the local building-trades union.

The Bureau has computed an index series (1939=100) to measure changes in scales from year to year. Annual percentage change is computed from aggregates of the quotations of unions which furnished reports for identical classifications in two consecutive years. The membership weights in both of the aggregates used for each year-to-year comparison were those reported for the second year. The total of the current aggregates was then divided by the total of the previous year's aggregates; the ratio so obtained was multiplied by the previous year's index number; the result was the current index number. The index numbers were constructed on this basis in order to minimize the influence of shifts in union membership which might obscure the real changes in wages and hours.

This index series, rather than the actual averages of rates in this report and previous reports, should be used to determine the trend of hourly wage rates. Changes in coverage and shifts in union membership distort a direct comparison of average rates in two periods.

Union Hourly Wage Rates

TREND OF UNION WAGE RATES, 1907–45

The index of union hourly wage rates for building-trades workers rose to 116.0 on July 1, 1945, an average increase of 2.1 percent since July 1, 1944 (table 1). The increase averaged 1.8 percent for journeymen and 4.7 percent for helpers and laborers.

Among the individual journeyman trades, marble setters received the highest average increase (3.7 percent) and cement finishers, elevator constructors, machinists, and paper hangers the lowest (less than 1 percent). Granite and stone cutters were the only trades having no change in scales during this period. Building laborers reported the largest average increase for the helper and laborer

[3] A forthcoming bulletin will contain additional text and tables, including a listing of the union scales in effect for each building trade in each of the 75 cities. Where possible, this table will also include rate changes approved by the Wage Adjustment Board between July 1, 1945, and the date of publication.

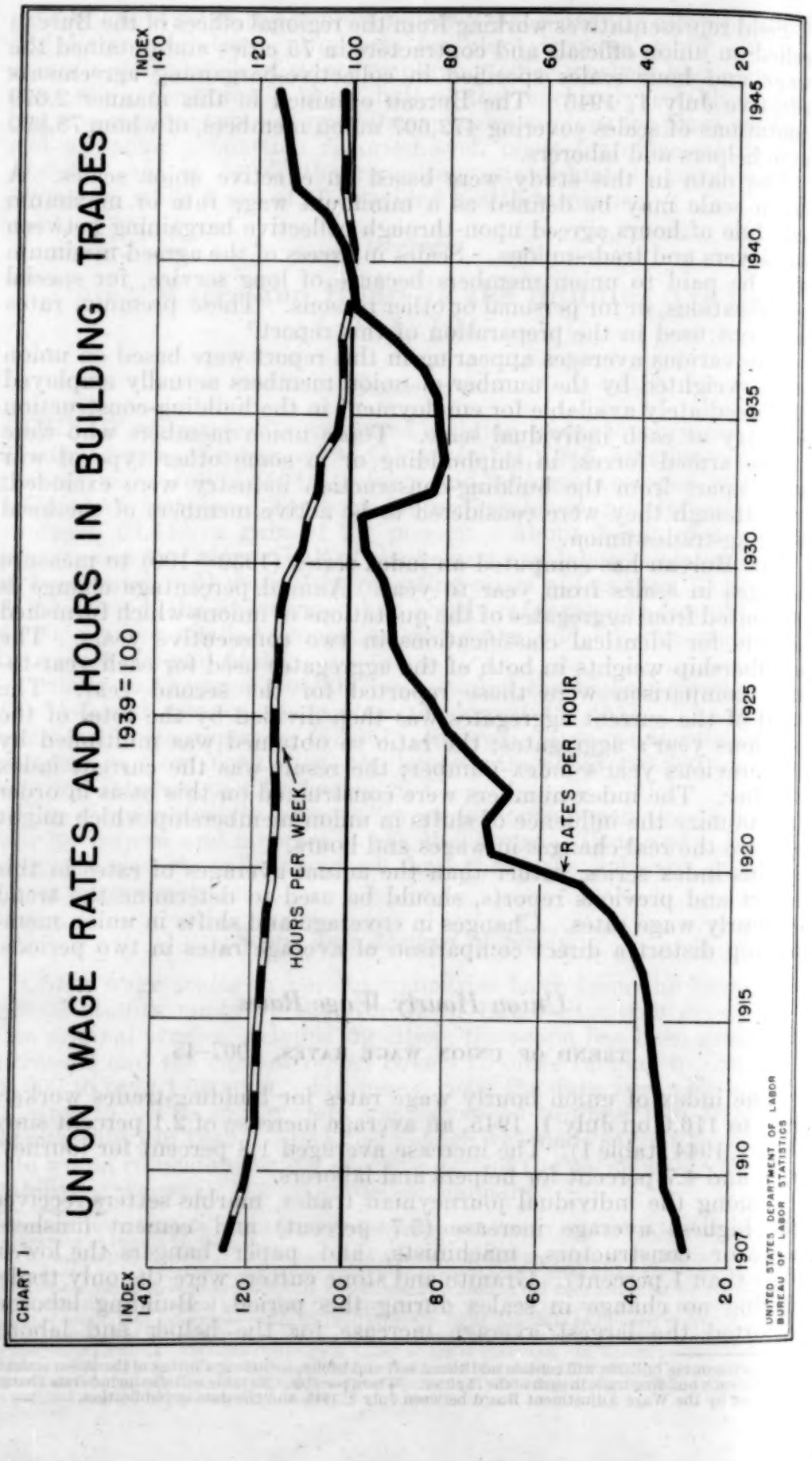
CHART 1
UNION WAGE RATES AND HOURS IN BUILDING TRADES
1939=100
INDEX
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
HOURS PER WEEK
RATES PER HOUR
1907
1910
1915
1920
1925
1930
1935
1940
1945
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

group (5.7 percent) and helpers of elevator constructors and terrazzo workers the smallest (less than 1 percent).

The rise in the index covering the 5-year period during World War II (1940–45) indicates an average increase of 13 percent for journeymen, 23 percent for helpers and laborers, and 14 percent for the groups combined, in contrast with the 5-year period during World War I (1914–19) when increases in rates for journeymen averaged 39 percent, for helpers and laborers 54 percent, and for all building-trades workers 41 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wages Rates in All Building Trades, 1907–45*

[1939=100]

Year	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers	Year	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers
1907	29.3	29.7	27.3	1927	91.3	91.7	86.4
1908	31.2	31.6	28.5	1928	91.9	92.4	87.3
1909	32.7	33.2	29.5	1929	93.1	93.6	88.8
1910	34.0	34.6	30.5	1930	97.0	97.5	93.3
1911	34.5	35.2	30.6	1931	97.3	97.8	92.8
1912	35.3	36.0	30.9	1932	83.1	83.6	79.2
1913	36.1	36.9	31.8	1933	80.8	81.4	75.7
1914	36.9	37.7	32.1	1934	81.4	81.8	77.9
1915	37.2	38.0	32.4	1935	82.3	82.8	78.3
1916	38.4	39.3	33.5	1936	85.3	85.5	82.9
1917	40.8	41.5	36.8	1937	91.2	91.4	90.1
1918	45.3	45.9	42.6	1938	99.3	99.3	99.2
1919	51.9	52.4	49.3	1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
1920	70.0	70.1	71.5	1940	101.6	101.4	102.0
1921	71.3	71.4	72.2	1941	105.3	105.0	106.8
1922	66.9	67.3	65.7	1942	111.9	110.9	117.5
1923	73.9	74.2	69.7	1943	112.7	111.5	118.9
1924	79.8	80.1	75.4	1944	113.6	112.4	120.3
1925	82.9	83.1	77.9	1945	116.0	114.4	125.9
1926	88.3	88.7	84.9				

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGE RATES, JULY 1, 1945

Journeyman building-trades workers in 75 cities averaged $1.615 per hour on July 1, 1945, helpers averaged $0.997, and for both groups combined the average was $1.512.

Bricklayers had the highest average rate among the individual journeyman trades ($1.814 per hour), with electricians ($1.754) and stonemasons ($1.753) next in order. The high average for stonemasons can be accounted for by the fact that these workers are usually included in the bricklayers' union and their work often calls for the same scale as bricklayers. Very few men are engaged at any one time in this type of masonry. The boilermakers' average ($1.75) which was directly below that of stonemasons, covered only those workers actively engaged in building-construction work in July 1945. Composition roofers had the lowest journeyman average ($1.465 per hour).

Elevator constructors' helpers had the highest average among the helper and laborer trades ($1.227). Their rates are standardized by contract at 70 percent of the journeyman scale. Plasterers' laborers ($1.197) had the next highest average, followed closely by the terrazzo workers' helpers ($1.19). Only the building laborers ($0.933) and the composition roofers' helpers ($0.831) had averages of less than $1.00.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
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CHART 2
DISTRIBUTION OF UNION BUILDING TRADES WORKERS ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES
JULY 1, 1945
JOURNEYMEN
HELPERS AND LABORERS
PERCENT
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
UNDER $.70
$.70 UNDER $.80
.80 UNDER .90
.90 UNDER 1.00
1.00 UNDER 1.10
1.10 UNDER 1.20
1.20 UNDER 1.30
1.30 UNDER 1.40
1.40 UNDER 1.50
1.50 UNDER 1.60
1.60 UNDER 1.70
1.70 UNDER 1.80
1.80 UNDER 1.90
1.90 UNDER 2.00
2.00 AND OVER
* LESS THAN 0.1 OF 1%
HOURLY WAGE RATE IN DOLLARS
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

More than half of the journeymen had rates between $1.50 and $1.80. A fifth of all journeyman quotations tabulated called for $1.50 and a substantial number of additional quotations called for $1.75. Over 6 percent of the journeymen had rates of $2.00 or more. Most of these workers were in New York City or Newark. The highest rate reported was $2.657 per hour for sign painters of outdoor advertising in New York City; the lowest was 90 cents for glaziers in Charlotte, N. C.

A majority of the helpers had rates between $1.00 and $1.30 per hour, most of which were $1.00, $1.10, $1.15, or $1.25. Over two-fifths of the helpers had rates of less than $1.00. The lowest rate for helpers was 50 cents per hour reported for building laborers in Charleston, S. C.; the highest rate, $1.60, was reported for plasterers' laborers in San Francisco.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Wage Rates and Average Straight-Time Weekly Hours for Union Members in Each Building Trade, July 1, 1945*

Trade	Average rate per hour	Average hours per week	Trade	Average rate per hour	Average hours per week
All building trades	$1.512	39.8	Journeymen—Continued.		
			Roofers, slate and tile	$1.579	40.0
Journeymen	1.615	39.8	Sheet-metal workers	1.619	40.0
Asbestos workers	1.632	39.9	Sign painters	1.647	39.0
Boilermakers	1.750	40.0	Steam and sprinkler fitters	1.709	40.0
Bricklayers	1.814	40.0	Stonecutters	1.647	37.6
Carpenters	1.539	39.9	Stonemasons	1.753	39.0
Cement finishers	1.546	40.0	Structural-iron workers	1.715	40.0
Electricians, inside wiremen	1.754	40.0	Tile layers	1.593	40.0
Elevator constructors	1.742	40.0			
Glaziers	1.547	39.3	Helpers and laborers	.997	40.0
Granite cutters	1.632	35.4	Bricklayers' tenders	1.086	39.9
Lathers	1.729	39.3	Building laborers	.933	40.0
Machinists	1.610	39.9	Composition roofers' helpers	.831	40.0
Marble setters	1.649	40.0	Elevator constructors' helpers	1.227	40.0
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	1.573	39.7	Marble setters' helpers	1.125	40.0
Painters	1.553	39.3	Plasterers' laborers	1.197	39.9
Paperhangers	1.505	39.9	Plumbers' laborers	1.046	40.0
Plasterers	1.737	39.5	Steam and sprinkler fitters' helpers	1.084	40.0
Plumbers and gas fitters	1.747	39.4	Terrazzo workers' helpers	1.190	38.2
Rodmen	1.588	40.0	Tile layers' helpers	1.174	40.0
Roofers, composition	1.465	40.0			

CHANGES IN UNION WAGE RATES BETWEEN 1944 AND 1945

Over 23 percent of the building-construction quotations, covering almost a third of the union members for whom comparable data were received in 1944 and 1945, revealed increases in wage rates for the period July 1, 1944, to July 1, 1945. Since the membership included in individual quotations may vary considerably, little correlation exists between total members receiving increases and total quotations showing increases. The journeyman category, with more than 22 percent of its comparable quotations higher than in 1944, registered rate gains for almost 3 out of every 10 members. Marble setters reported the largest percentage of members (54.8 percent) receiving raises brought about by higher scales in 21 cities, including New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston, where over 43 percent of the trade membership was concentrated. As marble setters account for only a tenth of 1 percent of all journeymen studied, the high proportion of their membership who benefited by raises is not so significant

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as that indicated for steam and sprinkler fitters. The latter occupation accounted for more than 5 percent of all journeymen tabulated. Increases in more than a fifth of its quotations were reported, favoring over 44 percent of the trade members. In addition to the trades mentioned, stonemasons, bricklayers, plumbers, tile layers, and rodmen reported over a third of their members receiving scale increases during the year.

Although less than a fourth of the helper and laborer quotations indicated wage increases, about half of the members (49.6 percent) benefited from these gains. Building laborers had the highest proportion (56.4 percent) of membership among the helper and laborer trades who received rate increases. This was the result of higher quotations in 26 cities having a heavy concentration of union laborers. With about 25 percent of their quotations higher than in 1944, significant segments of the members engaged as bricklayers' tenders (42.0 percent), marble setters' helpers (36.9 percent), plasterers' laborers (40.6 percent), and plumbers' laborers (31.3 percent) benefited by raises. The terrazzo workers' helpers had the smallest percentage (13.3) of members receiving increases.

There were no decreases in scales reported during the year for either journeymen or helpers in any of the 75 cities studied.

Over three-fourths of the quotations showing increases involved changes of less than 10 percent, benefiting more than a fourth of the union members. The majority of these quotations, covering 21.9 percent of the members, provided for rate increases of 5 but under 10 percent. Advances of 10 percent and over affected only 5.6 percent of all members.

Changes in rates for journeymen were comparable with those for the combined journeyman and helper groups discussed above. Among the journeymen, marble setters had the highest percentage of members receiving raises since 1944 and practically all of these benefited to the extent of 5 to 10 percent. Steam and sprinkler fitters had the second highest proportion of members receiving raises and for this trade also, a majority of the quotations, as well as a vast majority of the members benefiting, showed rate increases between 5 and 10 percent. Although increases of 5 and under 10 percent predominated for the journeyman group as a whole, several trades had their heaviest concentrations in the under-5-percent group. Elevator constructors reported 72.9 percent of those benefiting in this category, lathers 55 percent, machinists 66.7 percent, plasterers 40.9, and stonemasons 52.1 percent. Only a few journeymen had raises of more than 10 percent; tile layers (9.6 percent) and mosaic and terrazzo workers (9.4 percent) had the highest proportions of members receiving such gains. The only other trades having more than 5 percent of the membership benefiting by gains of 10 percent and over were carpenters (5.1 percent) and plasterers (5.8 percent).

A majority of the helper and laborer quotations showing higher scales than in the last survey period indicated increases of 5 but under 10 percent. These increases covered about 30 percent of the total membership. The greatest proportion of members to report gains within this range were plasterers' laborers (35.1 percent), followed by marble setters' helpers (34.5 percent). Almost a third of the higher helper quotations, affecting 37.5 percent of the membership securing raises, benefited by 10 percent and over. Almost half of the building

laborers who received raises were increased 10 percent or more, and many of these secured raises exceeding 15 percent. The high percentage figures result in some cases from raises of 5 to 20 cents in cities of high membership concentration and in cities with low basic scales.

WAGE CHANGES JULY 1, 1945–JANUARY 1, 1946

About 30 percent of the workers included in the July survey received wage increases between July 1945 and January 1946. Practically all of these adjustments occurred after VJ-day. These changes caused an over-all increase of 3 percent or about 4½ cents based on the general July 1 average of $1.512 per hour. The average gain for those who received increases was 13½ cents per hour or about 9 percent.

UNION WAGE RATES, BY CITY

Average Changes in Each City[4]

Increases in individual journeyman scales in York, Pa., averaging 8 percent between 1944 and 1945, placed this city at the head of the list of cities studied. St. Louis was second with an average increase of 7.1 percent, followed by New Orleans (5.7 percent) and Duluth and Binghamton (5.6 percent). The increase for St. Louis was especially significant, as its scales were generally higher than in the other cities mentioned. The increase for St. Louis was due to substantial raises granted to bricklayers, carpenters, plumbers, steamfitters, and iron workers, all with large memberships, as well as to six trades with a lesser number of members. Six cities reported no changes in journeyman scales during the year.

Grand Rapids led the cities in percentage increases for the helper and laborer trades, reporting a gain of 18.4 percent. Jacksonville and Rochester were next, with a 16.1-percent increase. In addition San Antonio, Pittsburgh, Tampa, Nashville, and Reading all had increases exceeding 10 percent. The increases in Grand Rapids were due mainly to wage changes for building laborers from 70 to 85 cents; in Rochester, to scale increases for several helper and laborer trades from 85 cents to $1.00; and in Jacksonville, to a rate increase for building laborers from 50 to 60 cents per hour. There was no change in rates for the helper and laborer trades during the year in 32 of the cities covered.

Average Rates, by Size of City[5]

In Newark and New York, where construction wage rates are closely related, owing to geographical proximity, the highest average rates for journeymen ($1.905 and $1.893, respectively) were reported

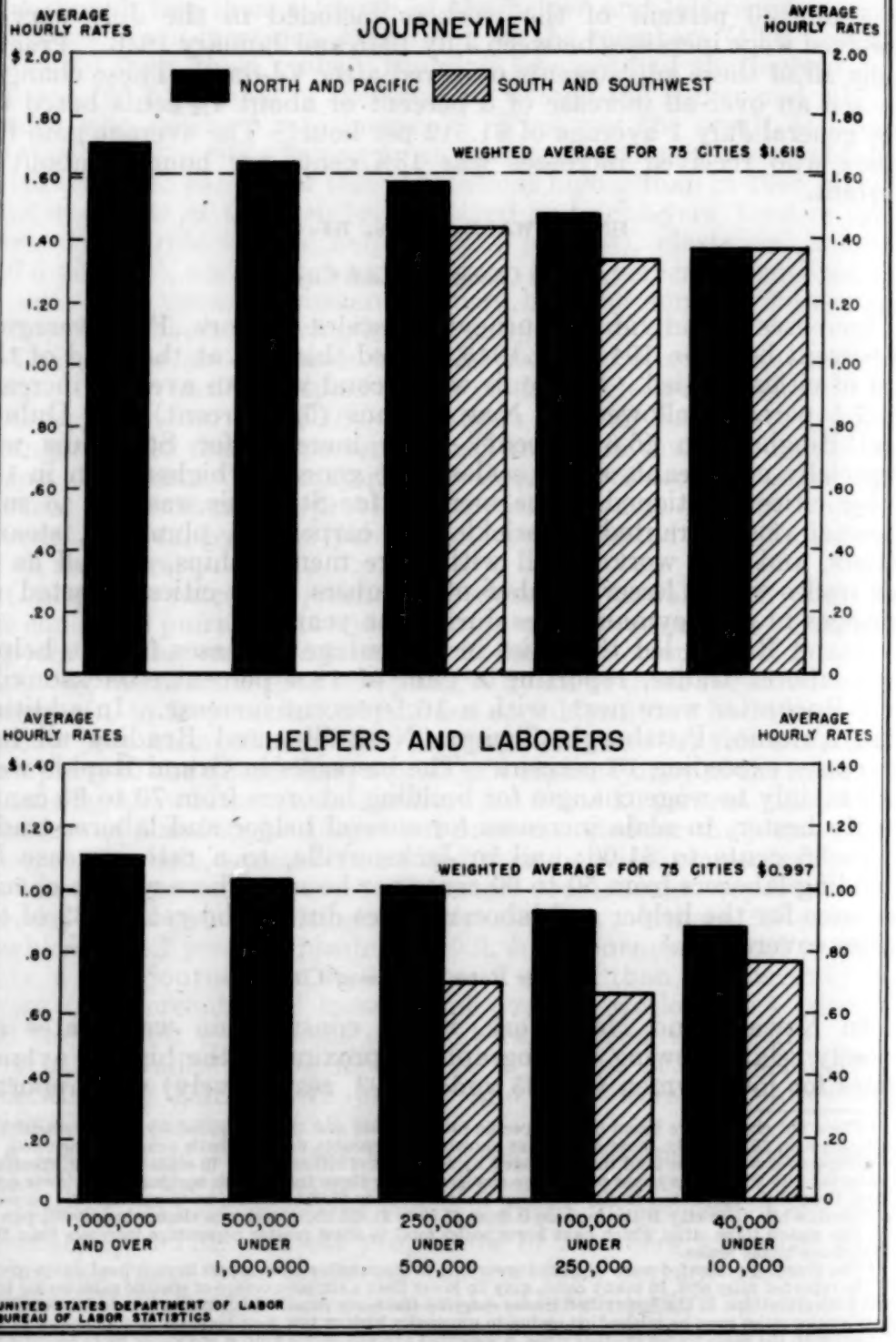
[4] These net changes are based on the specific rates for 1944 and 1945, weighted by the membership for each union in 1945. Only those quotations showing comparable data for both years are included. As building-trades wage rates tend to be changed by additions of either 12½ or 10 cents per hour, specific increases for 1945 will reflect larger percentage changes among those trades with comparatively lower actual scales; thus, if the carpenters in city A change their scale from $1.00 to $1.12½ an increase of 12½ percent is registered, while if in city B the increase is from $1.50 to $1.625 the percentage change is only 8⅓ percent. For this reason those cities which have lower scales tend to show greater percentage increases than those which have higher scales.

[5] The averages presented were weighted according to the number of members in each local union covered by the reported rates and, in many cases, may be lower than a simple average of specific rates owing to the heavy memberships in the less-skilled trades carrying the lower rates. Although a comparison of average rates among cities may be misleading owing to unusually high or low memberships in some cities in comparison with the same trades in other cities, a weighted average of this kind is obviously more realistic than a simple average. In the latter case, a wage rate for a trade including half a dozen members would be given the same importance as a trade including several hundred members.

CHART 3

AVERAGE UNION WAGE RATES IN BUILDING TRADES ACCORDING TO SIZE OF CITY AND REGION

JULY 1, 1945



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(table 3). The small difference in favor of Newark was largely attributable to the higher wage scale of Newark carpenters; the membership of this craft was large enough to affect the average in both areas materially. New York held leadership among the largest cities (group I); its average was almost 10 cents per hour higher than Chicago ($1.795). Los Angeles not only had the lowest average for group I cities, but its $1.423 average ranked forty-fourth among the 75 cities studied.

Washington, D. C., had the highest average for group II ($1.803). This was also the third highest average for all cities. Newark, of course, led the group III cities and its average was almost 30 cents per hour higher than that of Toledo ($1.632), which was second in this size group. The high rates for Newark may be attributed to the competitive nature of the labor market in the New York metropolitan area. Contractors from New York can draw on Newark labor and vice versa, thus accounting for the similarity of the individual scales in the two cities. Dayton and Youngstown led group IV cities, with averages of $1.621 and $1.606. Butte had the highest average for the smallest cities ($1.569). Charlotte, N. C., and York, Pa., had the lowest city averages ($1.196 and $1.216, respectively).

Newark also had the highest average rate for helpers and laborers ($1.251). Most of the laborers in the Newark area worked under agreements specifying $1.25 per hour as the minimum rate. New York and Chicago shared the next highest average ($1.215). Cleveland's average ($1.142) led the group II cities. Although Washington had the highest journeyman average in this size group, its helper and laborer average ($0.931) was next to the lowest. In addition to the four mentioned, 19 other cities had averages exceeding $1.00. Charleston, S. C. ($0.533), Jacksonville ($0.610), Nashville ($0.614), and Tampa ($0.629) had the lowest averages for helpers and laborers.

TABLE 3.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Building Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, July 1, 1945*

City and population group	Average hourly rate	City and population group	Average hourly rate
Journeymen		*Journeymen*—Continued	
Population group I (over 1,000,000):		Population group III—Continued.	
New York, N. Y	$1.893	Kansas City, Mo	$1.571
Chicago, Ill	1.795	Denver, Colo	1.549
Average for group I	*1.713*	*Average for group III*	*1.536*
Philadelphia, Pa	1.632	Louisville, Ky	1.511
Detroit, Mich	1.600	Portland, Oreg	1.497
Los Angeles, Calif	1.423	Columbus, Ohio	1.496
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):		Minneapolis, Minn	1.496
		St. Paul, Minn	1.496
Washington, D. C	1.803	Indianapolis, Ind	1.495
Pittsburgh, Pa	1.757	Houston, Tex	1.463
St. Louis, Mo	1.697	Birmingham, Ala	1.439
Cleveland, Ohio	1.674	New Orleans, La	1.412
Buffalo, N. Y	1.659	Memphis, Tenn	1.411
Average for group II	*1.651*	Providence, R. I	1.406
Boston, Mass	1.595	Dallas, Tex	1.398
San Francisco, Calif	1.571	Atlanta, Ga	1.362
Baltimore, Md	1.554	San Antonio, Tex	1.345
Milwaukee, Wis	1.454	Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):			
		Dayton, Ohio	1.621
Newark, N. J	1.905	Youngstown, Ohio	1.606
Toledo, Ohio	1.632	Peoria, Ill	1.564
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.626	South Bend, Ind	1.542
Seattle, Wash	1.621	New Haven, Conn	1.525
Rochester, N. Y	1.593	Springfield, Mass	1.523

TABLE 3.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Building Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, July 1, 1945*—Continued

City and population group	Average hourly rate
Journeymen—Continued	
Population group IV—Continued.	
Spokane, Wash	$1.512
Erie, Pa	1.477
Reading, Pa	1.476
Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	1.466
Oklahoma City, Okla	1.452
Average for group IV	*1.457*
Des Moines, Iowa	1.425
Grand Rapids, Mich	1.418
Worcester, Mass	1.413
Salt Lake City, Utah	1.406
Omaha, Nebr	1.405
Scranton, Pa	1.399
Nashville, Tenn	1.372
Richmond, Va	1.358
Duluth, Minn	1.353
Norfolk, Va	1.340
Wichita, Kans	1.334
Tampa, Fla	1.291
Jacksonville, Fla	1.272
Charlotte, N. C	1.196
Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
Butte, Mont	1.569
Charleston, W. Va	1.566
Mobile, Ala	1.424
El Paso, Tex	1.399
Phoenix, Ariz	1.395
Binghamton, N. Y	1.393
Average for group V	*1.369*
Little Rock, Ark	1.331
Madison, Wis	1.306
Manchester, N. H	1.303
Portland, Maine	1.251
Jackson, Miss	1.241
Charleston, S. C	1.224
York, Pa	1.216
Helpers and laborers	
Population group I (over 1,000,000):	
Chicago, Ill	1.215
New York, N. Y	1.215
Average for group I	*1.109*
Detroit, Mich	1.033
Los Angeles, Calif	.995
Philadelphia, Pa	.917
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):	
Cleveland, Ohio	1.142
San Francisco, Calif	1.072
St. Louis, Mo	1.056
Milwaukee, Wis	1.043
Pittsburgh, Pa	1.037
Average for group II	*1.035*
Boston, Mass	1.028
Buffalo, N. Y	1.018
Washington, D. C	.931
Baltimore, Md	.885
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):	
Newark, N. J	1.251
Seattle, Wash	1.172

City and population group	Average hourly rate
Helpers and laborers—Continued	
Population group III—Continued.	
Portland, Oreg	$1.088
Denver, Colo	1.066
Kansas City, Mo	1.029
Toledo, Ohio	1.010
Rochester, N. Y	.997
Minneapolis, Minn	.993
St. Paul, Minn	.972
Cincinnati, Ohio	.951
Indianapolis, Ind	.942
Average for group III	*.901*
Providence, R. I	.865
Columbus, Ohio	.857
Louisville, Ky	.837
Atlanta, Ga	.830
Dallas, Tex	.713
San Antonio, Tex	.713
New Orleans, La	.706
Houston, Tex	.675
Birmingham, Ala	.641
Memphis, Tenn	.630
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
South Bend, Ind	1.086
Richmond, Va	1.070
Spokane, Wash	1.047
Peoria, Ill	1.008
Springfield, Mass	.983
New Haven, Conn	.980
Dayton, Ohio	.965
Salt Lake City, Utah	.945
Worcester, Mass	.942
Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	.895
Scranton, Pa	.893
Erie, Pa	.886
Grand Rapids, Mich	.885
Average for group IV	*.884*
Des Moines, Iowa	.867
Youngstown, Ohio	.854
Reading, Pa	.846
Omaha, Nebr	.834
Duluth, Minn	.823
Wichita, Kans	.816
Norfolk, Va	.815
Oklahoma City, Okla	.728
Tampa, Fla	.629
Nashville, Tenn	.614
Jacksonville, Fla	.610
Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
Butte, Mont	1.004
Portland, Maine	.929
Madison, Wis	.911
Phoenix, Ariz	.908
Binghamton, N. Y	.855
Charleston, W. Va	.845
York, Pa	.802
Average for group V	*.799*
Manchester, N. H	.770
El Paso, Tex	.750
Little Rock, Ark	.719
Mobile, Ala	.685
Charleston, S. C	.533

[1] Includes Rock Island and Moline, Ill., and Davenport, Iowa.

Average Rates by Region and Trade

The largest cities had the highest average rates for all building trades combined, as well as for journeymen and helpers considered separately. This was also true in the case of 13 individual journeyman and 8 helper and laborer trades. Significantly, these trades accounted for the vast majority of the members covered. Considering the

regions and trades separately, a number of smaller cities had higher averages than larger cities. This situation occurred most frequently in group V cities (40,000 to 100,000) in the South and Southwest where averages exceeded those of group IV cities (100,000 to 250,000) in the region.

Averages in the North and Pacific region exceeded those in the South and Southwest for all building-trades workers combined, as well as for the helpers and laborers. In the case of the combined journeyman trades, the averages all favored the North and Pacific regions by almost 15 cents, except for cities in group V where the averages were the same.

There were 72 possible comparisons of journeyman averages between the North and Pacific on the one hand, and the South and Southwest regions on the other. In 61 instances the rate was higher in the North and Pacific region, and in 6 instances the difference exceeded 25 cents. Ten of the 11 averages favoring the South and Southwest region were in group V cities, the smallest municipalities covered.

In all of the possible regional comparisons for helpers and laborers, the North and Pacific region showed higher averages; in most cases the difference was substantial, amounting to as much as 37.8 cents per hour in favor of the North and Pacific region.

Overtime and Sunday Rates

Since 1942, premium rates of time and a half for overtime and Sunday work have been almost universal throughout the industry. This standardization was achieved through the stabilization agreement and union cooperation in relinquishing, for the duration of the war, double-time premium rates where these were effective.

Prior to the war (June 1941) double-time rates for overtime work covered over 60 percent of the union members; over 90 percent received double time if they worked on Sundays or holidays.

Weekly Hours

TREND OF STRAIGHT-TIME WEEKLY HOURS

Owing primarily to the continuance of the agreement which standardized the straight-time workweek on Government construction work at 40 hours, and the general acceptance of this workweek on other work, no change was reflected in the index of average weekly hours for building-trades workers between July 1, 1944, and July 1, 1945 (table 4).

During a 5-year period in the Second World War (1940–45) hours for union journeymen advanced an average of 2.2 percent, whereas those of helpers showed an average reduction of 1.3 percent. These changes were brought about when the 40-hour week was standardized for Government work. Prior to that time journeymen in several areas had a workweek of less than 40 hours and some helpers were required to work more than 40 hours at straight time.

Between 1914 and 1919, straight-time hours of building-trades journeymen were reduced an average of 1.7 percent and those of helpers, 2 percent. However, in 1914, hours for building-trades workers ranged from 44 to 60 per week.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Union Weekly Hours in All Building Trades, 1907–45*

[1939=100]

Year	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers	Year	All trades	Journeymen	Helpers and laborers
1907	124.3	123.8	126.1	1927	114.7	114.8	113.9
1908	122.4	122.0	123.5	1928	114.0	114.0	113.8
1909	120.7	120.5	121.0	1929	113.0	113.3	111.5
1910	119.2	119.1	118.8	1930	109.8	110.0	109.0
1911	118.8	118.7	118.6	1931	108.5	108.5	108.1
1912	118.4	118.3	118.3	1932	106.5	106.6	105.7
1913	118.2	118.0	118.3	1933	106.2	106.2	105.2
1914	117.7	117.7	117.6	1934	102.3	102.3	101.9
1915	117.6	117.6	117.5	1935	101.5	101.5	101.2
1916	117.2	117.1	117.2	1936	101.5	101.5	101.4
1917	116.9	116.9	116.7	1937	101.9	101.9	101.8
1918	116.3	116.2	116.3	1938	100.2	100.1	100.2
1919	115.7	115.7	115.2	1939	100.0	100.0	100.0
1920	115.1	115.2	114.5	1940	99.9	100.0	99.4
1921	115.0	115.1	114.5	1941	100.3	100.5	99.7
1922	115.0	115.2	114.2	1942	101.1	101.8	98.8
1923	115.1	115.3	114.4	1943	101.0	102.0	98.1
1924	115.1	115.3	114.4	1944	101.2	102.2	98.1
1925	115.1	115.3	114.2	1945	101.2	102.2	98.1
1926	114.9	115.1	113.9				

WEEKLY HOURS, 1945

Straight-time weekly hours for union journeymen in the building-construction industry averaged 39.8 on July 1, 1945; helpers averaged 40 hours (table 2). These averages indicate how closely the industry, in cooperation with the union, conformed to the stabilization agreement establishing the 40-hour week on Government projects and how general the acceptance of their workweek was for private projects during the war period. A shorter workweek on private projects has been reestablished in many areas since the war ended in August. However, because this reduction in hours took place after the survey date, it is not reflected in this report.

Practically all (96 percent) of the union members covered worked a 40-hour straight-time week in July 1945. Only granite cutters, stonecutters, stonemasons, and sign painters, among the journeymen, and terrazzo workers' helpers in the helper and laborer group, had substantial numbers of their members on a straight-time week of less than 40 hours. None of these trades were active in war construction. The painters and glaziers also had significant proportions of their members working less than 40 hours on a straight-time basis. This was due to the continuance during the war of the shorter week on private construction in some areas.

Recent Developments in Governmental Regulation

A series of Executive orders and amendments issued since VJ-day, including General Order No. 40 of the War Labor Board, has had the effect of allowing wage increases in nondispute cases without the prior approval of any Federal wage-stabilization agency, if no price increase or no increase in cost to the United States resulted from the wage adjustment. However, General Order No. 41 of the War Labor Board, issued August 18, 1945, specifically exempted the building-construction industry from General Order No. 40 and required that applications for the increase or decrease of wage rates in the building-

construction industry, whether resulting from collective bargaining or otherwise, should continue to be presented to the Wage Adjustment Board for approval as heretofore required. This regulation is effective, regardless of whether any wage increase would be used in whole or in part as a basis for seeking an increase in price ceilings or for resisting otherwise justifiable reductions in price ceilings or for increasing the cost to the United States. The original order, which expired November 18, was extended to December 31, 1945. On December 5, the War Labor Board issued a release stating that "in order to avoid a chaotic condition in the building-construction industry which might hamper reconversion, wage adjustments in this industry would continue, even after December 31, 1945, to require the approval of the Wage Adjustment Board before they could be put into effect."

Trends in Urban Wage Rates, April to October 1945[1]

Summary

BASIC wage rates in urban manufacturing and selected urban nonmanufacturing industries in October 1945 showed small increases over April 1945 levels. The major portion of these increases occurred subsequent to the relaxation of wage controls by Executive order of August 18, 1945. More than a fourth of some 2,600 establishments studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics had granted general increases in wage scales, and two-thirds of these were postwar changes. The greatest advances were observed in the consumer industries and in certain nonmanufacturing groups which had shown relatively slight wartime change. Rates in the metalworking industries remained essentially unchanged.

These observations are based on estimates developed from a study of wage trends in 18 of the 69 cities that are represented in the Bureau of Labor Statistics indexes of urban wage rates. These indexes are affected by changes in basic wage rates resulting from general changes in pay scales and by individual wage-rate adjustments within occupational classifications. They exclude the effect of such factors as premium pay for overtime and late-shift work, the shifting of employment among regions, industries, and occupations, and most of the changes in the composition of the labor force. The indexes cover manufacturing industry and selected branches of nonmanufacturing in urban areas.

The data developed from the present partial survey, corrected statistically for differences in sample coverage, are believed to yield sufficiently accurate results for use in the industry and area indexes discussed in this article. Data have been omitted from the series for industry groups and areas where coverage was inadequate for stable results.

[1] Prepared by Frances M. Jones and Eleanor K. Buschman of the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch. For a more complete description of the Bureau's measure of urban wage trends and the findings of previous surveys, see Monthly Labor Review, issues of October 1944 (p. 684), February 1945 (p. 379), and September 1945 (p. 519).

Urban wage-rate trends should not be confused with trends of factory earnings, published monthly by the Bureau in this same periodical (see p. 295 of this issue). The latter series is based on gross earnings of all wage earners and thus reflects such factors as hours of work, premium pay for overtime and late-shift work, and shifting of employment among regions, industries, and occupations. The estimated straight-time average hourly earnings are computed by applying a correction factor to gross average earnings to eliminate the effect of overtime premiums but not of night-shift premiums or other factors affecting gross earnings.

Wage Movements in Manufacturing Industries

An increase of 1.0 percent was registered by wage rates in urban manufacturing industry as a whole between April and October 1945, bringing the total advance in wage rates since January 1941 to almost 34 percent.

The April–October 1945 period saw gross weekly earnings in manufacturing industry decline by 12.9 percent, and gross hourly earnings decline by 5.7 percent, which reduced these respective measures of wages to 54 and 44 percent above the January 1941 level. The reduction shown in gross earnings was the consequence of a shorter workweek generally, of less overtime and late-shift work with the accompanying premium pay, and of shifts in weight of employment from war industries to generally lower-wage consumer and service industries—all a part of the process of industrial reconversion to a peacetime basis. These factors do not affect the index of wage rates.

When gross hourly earnings are "adjusted" to eliminate most premium overtime pay and the effect of interindustry shifts in employment, they show a trend similar to that shown by the urban wage-rate index, but indicate a higher rate of increase (1.7 percent) in "straight-time" earnings than the recent 1-percent advance in wage rates. Gross hourly earnings are influenced by changes in the importance of individual regions or localities and changes in occupational structure, which do not affect the urban wage rate series. It also reflects wage changes in nonurban areas, and changes in the rate of pay for overtime and extra-shift work and in the extent of extra-shift work at premium pay. Table 1 gives a comparison of various measures of wage movements since January 1941.

TABLE 1.—*Comparative Summary of Changes in Earnings and Wage Rates in Manufacturing, January 1941–October 1945*

Period	Percent of change in specified period				
	Gross weekly earnings	Gross hourly earnings	Adjusted hourly earnings [1]	Urban wage rates	General wage changes
Total period (January 1941–October 1945)	+54.0	+44.2	+41.7	[2] +33.7	[2] +18.0
Prestabilization period (January 1941–October 1942)	+46.0	+30.7	+21.5	[2] +17.0	[2] +12.6
Stabilization period (October 1942–October 1945)	+5.5	+10.3	+16.6	[2] +14.2	[2] +4.8
October 1942–April 1943	+9.2	+5.7	+3.2	+3.0	+1.1
April 1943–October 1943	+5.6	+4.7	+3.6	+3.8	+.5
October 1943–April 1944	+1.5	+2.5	+3.0	+1.9	+.5
April 1944–October 1944	[3] +3.1	+1.8	+2.1	+2.2	+.4
October 1944–April 1945	[3] +.4	[3] +1.3	+1.9	+1.6	+.5
April 1945–October 1945	−12.9	−5.7	+1.7	[4] +1.0	[4] +1.6

[1] Hourly earnings excluding premium payments for overtime, and with industries weighted in proportion to their 1941 employment.
[2] Partially estimated.
[3] Revision of previously published data.
[4] Estimated.

CAUSES OF WAGE-RATE CHANGES

The increase that took place in manufacturing wage rates between April and October 1945 was due primarily to changes in wage scales affecting all or substantial segments of individual-establishment employment. Such general wage increases had been a relatively unimportant factor contributing to advances in manufacturing wage

rates since October 1942. They had not accounted for more than one-half of 1 percent increase per 6 months since the "hold-the-line" order was issued early in 1943 (table 2).

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Manufacturing Industries, Caused Exclusively by General Wage Increases, April 1943–October 1945*

Industry group	Percent of increase from—					
	April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1944 to October 1944	October 1944 to April 1945	April 1945 to October 1945 [1]	April 1943 to October 1945 [2]
All industries	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	1.6	3.5
Food and kindred products	.6	.3	.9	.5	2.5	4.9
Tobacco manufactures	1.9	1.2	1.1	.9	[3]	[4] 5.1
Textile-mill products	.1	1.4	.9	.7	4.1	7.3
Apparel and allied products	.8	.4	.4	.6	.7	2.9
Lumber and timber basic products	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[3]	[5]
Furniture and finished lumber products	.7	1.1	.3	.6	3.7	6.5
Paper and allied products	2.2	.4	.7	.5	4.2	8.2
Printing, publishing, and allied products	.9	.3	.9	.8	1.6	4.5
Chemicals and allied products	2.0	.1	1.0	.9	[3]	[4] 4.0
Products of petroleum and coal	.7	[6]	.1	.2	[3]	[4] 1.0
Rubber products	.2	.5	.1	.4	[6]	1.2
Leather and leather products	.8	.2	.1	.3	.4	1.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[3]	[5]
Metalworking (except basic iron and steel and shipbuilding)	.4	.5	.3	.4	1.2	2.8

[1] Estimated.
[2] Partially estimated.
[3] Data not available for October 1945.
[4] October 1943 to April 1945.
[5] Representation inadequate to show percent of change.
[6] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Following the issuance on August 18, 1945, of the Executive order permitting wage and salary increases without approval by the National War Labor Board in cases not involving a rise in price ceilings, and the War Labor Board's implementation of the Executive order through General Order 40, a marked upward trend occurred in the demand for and granting of general increases in wage scales. More than a fourth of all covered establishments in the Bureau's survey had granted general wage increases between April and October, and two-thirds of these establishments negotiated the action subsequent to August 18. Many of these increases being in small and medium-size establishments, their net effect on total wages had not reached a significant total by October 1945, although negotiations involving large bodies of workers were in progress or anticipated at that time. It is notable, however, that the increase in wage rates chargeable exclusively to general increases in wage scales had reached 1.6 percent by October, whereas the net change in wage rates from all causes showed an increase of only 1.0 percent.

Various influences, in addition to advances in pay scales, operated in individual establishments, during the period studied, both to increase and to reduce the general level of wage rates. A more pronounced concentration of workers at the upper limits of occupational rate ranges existed in October than in April, owing both to promotions within rate ranges and to the lay-off (during force reductions) of the less-efficient workers and those with shorter service. The effect of these factors was partially offset by the practice in other establishments of laying off the higher-rate workers and by accessions

(after reconversion) in the lower portions of rate ranges, and by a fairly general decline in the earnings of incentive workers.[2] During the period of strict wage stabilization the principal factors operating to increase the level of wage rates appeared to be individual-merit and length-of-service increases not offset by labor turn-over, and increases in average incentive earnings traceable, at least in part, to increased productivity resulting from simplification of incentive tasks, standardization of production, and an emotional urge related to the war effort.

WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN INDUSTRY GROUPS

The consumer industries again experienced the highest rates of increase in wage scales, as may be seen from table 3. Textile wage rates advanced 5.1 percent, and the furniture and paper industry groups, respectively, had rates 4.4 and 4.5 percent higher than in April 1945. Food, rubber products, leather, and the printing and publishing groups likewise reported higher-than-average percentage

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Urban Wage Rates in Manufacturing, by Industry Group, April 1943–October 1945*

Industry group	Percent of change from—					
	April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1944 to October 1944	October 1944 to April 1945	April 1945 to October 1945 [1]	April 1943 to October 1945 [2]
All industries	+3.8	+1.9	+2.2	+1.6	+1.0	+11.0
Food and kindred products	+3.2	+1.1	+1.9	+1.4	+2.4	+10.3
Tobacco manufactures	+1.1	+3.1	+1.7	+3.7	(3)	[4] +10.0
Textile-mill products	+2.7	+2.7	+2.3	+1.1	+5.1	+14.8
Apparel and allied products	−.2	+5.0	+7.6	+6.7	−1.1	+19.1
Lumber and timber basic products	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Furniture and finished lumber products	+3.4	+1.8	+2.9	+1.0	+4.4	+14.4
Paper and allied products	+5.2	+.2	+1.7	+.4	+4.5	+12.4
Printing, publishing, and allied products	+3.1	+1.6	+2.5	+2.1	+1.8	+11.5
Chemicals and allied products	+2.4	+1.3	+1.2	+.8	(3)	[4] +5.7
Products of petroleum and coal	−.3	(6)	+.3	+.1	(3)	[4] +.1
Rubber products	+2.0	+2.5	+1.4	+2.0	+2.5	+10.8
Leather and leather products	+4.5	+4.0	+4.2	+4.2	+1.6	+19.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Basic iron and steel	(7)	+.7	−.6	+.4	(3)	[8] +.5
Shipbuilding	+.4	+.4	+.5	+.8	+.4	+2.5
Metalworking (except basic iron and steel and shipbuilding)	+5.4	+1.9	+2.0	+1.2	+.3	+11.1

[1] Estimated.
[2] Partially estimated.
[3] Data not available for October 1945.
[4] April 1943 to April 1945.
[5] Representation inadequate to show percent of change.
[6] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.
[7] Data not available for April 1943.
[8] October 1943 to April 1945.

increases. The apparel industries were an important exception, having decreased 1.1 percent below the April level. The effect on incentive earnings of material scarcities and the change-over to civilian goods is reflected in sharp reductions in previous rates of increase experienced by both the apparel and the leather products groups. Some segments of these industries, however, showed appreciable increases ascribed to larger incentive earnings and/or general changes in rate scales.

[2] For incentive workers, average hourly earnings exclusive of premium overtime and late-shift pay are used in lieu of wage rates. Numerous variables affecting piece and bonus rates makes infeasible the use of such rates in the Bureau's index.

In the metalworking industries, general increases in wage scales had been granted in one out of each six establishments surveyed, but this whole group of industries showed a net increase of only 0.3 percent over April 1945 rates. The abbreviated survey made in October 1945 did not yield separate detail for several industries, including basic iron and steel, petroleum, chemicals, lumber, tobacco, and stone, clay and glass products.

AREA COMPARISONS

Among the 10 major cities for which information is available, Atlanta ranked highest in proportionate increase (4.9 percent) of manufacturing wage rates during the months April to October 1945 (table 4). With the increase registered in October, this city shows a total advance of 16.4 percent in manufacturing wage rates since April 1943. Dallas, although showing a lower rate of increase for the October 1945 period, experienced a similar total increase over the entire period covered by the index. Other cities showing higher-than-average advances for the April–October 1945 period were Boston, Denver, and Los Angeles.

TABLE 4.—*Percent of Change in Urban Wage Rates in Manufacturing, by Selected Area, April 1943–October 1945*

Urban area	Percent of change from—					
	April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1944 to October 1944	October 1944 to April 1945	April 1945 to October 1945	April 1943 to October 1945
Total, United States	+3.8	+1.9	+2.2	+1.6	[1] +1.0	[2] +11.0
Atlanta	+3.6	+1.4	+2.7	+2.9	+4.9	+16.4
Boston	+5.3	+1.6	+1.1	+3.7	+1.7	+14.0
Chicago	+3.1	+1.8	+3.0	+2.1	+.3	+10.7
Dallas	+7.2	+1.9	+1.7	+2.4	+2.2	+16.2
Denver	+4.1	+3.3	+1.8	−2.1	+2.5	+9.9
Detroit	+5.9	+.2	+.3	0	−.4	+5.9
Kansas City	+1.4	+1.7	+1.7	+3.1	+.9	+9.1
Los Angeles	+6.8	+1.5	+1.1	+1.2	+1.1	+12.1
New York	+.5	+5.0	+6.4	+4.7	−.3	+17.2
Seattle	+.9	+2.4	+.4	+.3	+.5	+4.5

[1] Estimated.
[2] Partially estimated.

Minor reductions below previous levels took place in October in Detroit and New York City. Detroit wage rates in manufacturing as a whole remained substantially unchanged, but general wage changes were fairly numerous in the city's food, printing, and chemical industries. Very few rate increases had been granted in Detroit metal-products establishments, however, and there was also some evidence of lower average incentive earnings during the reconversion period, as well as a slight loss in average occupational rates for time workers. In New York City minor wage increases occurred in most of its industries, but substantially lower incentive earnings in some segments of the city's important garment-manufacturing industry brought the curve of rates for all manufacturing below the April 1945 level. Primarily as a result of previous increases in the garment industry, in October 1945 New York City still showed a greater total advance in manufacturing wage rates since April 1943 than any other city included in the series.

Urban Wage-Rate Changes in Nonmanufacturing Industries

Wage rates in nonmanufacturing industries underwent increases similar to those in some of the consumer industries in manufacturing. For the nonmanufacturing groups as a whole, rates advanced 2.9 percent between April and October 1945, in comparison with a 3.7-percent increase during the previous 6-month period. The total increase in urban wage rates for the group in October stood 21.3 percent above April 1943 rates (table 5).

TABLE 5.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, by Industry Group, April 1943–October 1945*

Industry group [1]	Percent of increase from—					
	April 1943 to October 1943	October 1943 to April 1944	April 1944 to October 1944	October 1944 to April 1945	April 1945 to October 1945 [2]	April 1943 to October 1945 [3]
Total, selected industries	6.4	2.5	4.2	3.7	2.9	21.3
Wholesale trade	2.5	2.0	2.9	1.5	5.9	15.6
Retail trade	9.2	2.7	5.7	4.6	2.1	26.6
Finance, insurance, and real estate	3.9	3.1	1.6	4.5	1.7	15.6
Local utilities	1.5	1.1	.3	1.5	3.1	7.7
Service trades	6.4	2.4	5.4	3.2	2.8	21.7

[1] The specific industries selected to represent these groups in the measurement of wage-rate changes were as follows: *Wholesale trade*—general-line wholesale groceries; *retail trade*—department stores, clothing stores, and groceries; *finance, insurance, and real estate*—banks and savings and loan associations; *local utilities*—electric light and power or gas companies; *service trades*—hotels, power laundries, and auto-repair shops.
[2] Estimated.
[3] Partially estimated.

General changes in wage scales accounted for most of the advance in nonmanufacturing rates. The increase chargeable exclusively to general wage changes was 2.5 percent. In the previous period they accounted for only a 0.7-percent increase against the total advance in rates of 3.7 percent. As in manufacturing, about a fourth of the nonmanufacturing establishments granted general increases in pay scales between April and October 1945, and two-thirds of these changes occurred after August 18.

WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN INDUSTRY GROUPS

Only retail trade, wholesale trade, finance, insurance, real-estate offices, local utilities, and service industries are included in the nonmanufacturing series. During the war period, retail trade had been making the most rapid strides of the group in increasing wages. In recent months advances in wage scales have been widespread in wholesale trade, and this group showed the greatest advance (5.9 percent) in October 1945. In retail trade the increase was 2.1 percent. Local utilities likewise increased more during recent months than in any other 6-month period covered by the index, wage rates having advanced 3.1 percent. The service trades and finance group of industries registered increases of 2.8 and 1.7 percent, respectively. Table 6 shows the recent trend of nonmanufacturing wage rates chargeable exclusively to general wage changes in each industry group.

TABLE 6.—*Percent of Increase in Urban Wage Rates in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, Caused Exclusively by General Wage Increases, April 1944–October 1945*

Industry group	Percent of increase from—			
	April 1944 to October 1944	October 1944 to April 1945	April 1945 to October 1945	April 1944 to October 1945
Total, selected industries	0.8	0.7	2.5	4.0
Wholesale trade	2.0	1.6	5.6	9.4
Retail trade	.4	.3	2.2	2.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	.1	.6	.8	1.5
Local utilities	.2	.7	2.7	3.6
Service trades	1.7	1.2	2.2	5.2

AREA COMPARISONS

The end of the war period saw relatively greater advances in nonmanufacturing rates in some of the more important war production cities than in lower wage areas. Los Angeles reported an increase of 7.6 percent, Detroit 3.4 percent, and Seattle 2.8 percent. Atlanta and Dallas, which had experienced large wartime increases, showed gains of 1.3 and 1.0 percent, respectively, above April 1945 levels. New York City, which reported large increases for the previous period, likewise showed relatively small gains in October. Table 7 contains detailed information for the principal cities covered in October.

TABLE 7.—*Percent of Change in Urban Wage Rates in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries, by Selected Area, April 1943–October 1945*

Urban area	Percent of change from—			
	April 1944 to October 1944	October 1944 to April 1945	April 1945 to October 1945	April 1943 to October 1945
Total, United States	+4.2	+3.7	[1] +2.9	[2] +21.3
Atlanta	+6.3	+5.6	+1.3	+29.3
Boston	+3.3	+4.1	+1.9	+15.9
Chicago	+6.3	+3.8	+2.6	+26.6
Dallas	+.8	+2.1	+1.0	+26.7
Denver	+3.3	+4.9	+2.3	+16.7
Detroit	+5.5	+2.5	+3.4	+29.8
Kansas City	+1.1	+5.7	+5.5	+25.8
Los Angeles	+3.0	+2.5	+7.6	+20.8
New York	+3.2	+6.2	+1.9	+19.9
Seattle	+4.0	+.4	+2.8	+9.0

[1] Estimated. [2] Partially estimated.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to November 1945

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to November 1945.[1] The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $40.89 in November 1945—76.3 percent above the average in January 1939, 53.5 percent above January 1941, and 5.1 percent above October 1942. Weekly pay for November 1945 dropped 13 percent below that of November 1944, as the result of reductions in both hourly pay and working hours.

[1] Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939–43, in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (p. 869), especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, November 1945, table 6 (p. 333) in this issue.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to November 1945

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings [1] weighted by January 1941 employment		
	All manufacturing (1)	Durable goods (2)	Nondurable goods (3)	All manufacturing (4)	Durable goods (5)	Nondurable goods (6)	All manufacturing (7)	Durable goods (8)	Nondurable goods (9)
1939: January	$23.19	$25.33	$21.57	$0.632	$0.696	$0.583	$0.641	$0.702	$0.575
1940: January	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.652	708	.589
1941: January	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601
1942: January	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.751	.826	.668
July	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.783	.863	.696
October	38.89	45.31	30.66	.893	.990	.751	807	.888	.718
1943: January	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.819	.905	.726
April	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.833	.916	.742
July	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.850	.939	.753
October	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.086	.824	.863	.950	.768
December	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.873	.962	.775
1944: January	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.877	.965	.780
April	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.013	1.110	.850	.889	.976	.794
July	45.43	51.07	37.05	1.018	1.116	.862	.901	.993	.802
October	46.94	53.18	37.97	1.031	1.129	.878	.908	.991	.817
December	47.44	53.68	38.39	1.040	1.140	.883	.912	.997	.820
1945: January	47.50	53.54	38.66	1.046	1.144	.891	.920	1.005	.827
April	47.12	52.90	38.80	1.044	1.138	.899	.925	1.007	.836
July	45.12	50.60	38.59	1.032	1.126	.902	.933	1.017	.842
August	41.72	45.72	36.63	1.024	1.113	.909	(2)	(2)	(2)
September	40.87	43.95	37.80	.987	1.072	.903	.944	1.024	.856
October [3]	41.04	44.40	37.77	.985	1.063	.909	.941	1.012	.863
November [3]	40.89	43.97	37.88	.990	1.063	.917	.947	1.017	.871

[1] The method of estimating straight-time average hourly earnings makes no allowance for special rates of pay for work done on major holidays. Estimates for the months of January, July, September, and November, therefore, may not be precisely comparable with those for the other months in which important holidays are seldom included in the pay periods for which manufacturing establishments report to the Bureau. This characteristic of the data does not appear to invalidate the comparability of the figures for January 1941 with those for the preceding and following months. Inapplicability of the formula to August 1945 with its double holiday, in celebration of the Japanese surrender, prevents release of that month's estimates.

[2] Preliminary.

However, the average earnings of factory workers were still higher than before the war, as a result of such wartime factors as changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 99.0 cents in November 1945—56.6 percent above the average in January 1939, 44.9 percent above January 1941, and 10.9 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of manufacturing for January 1941. These earnings are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. However, the effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For this reason, straight-time earnings data are not presented for August 1945 when the hourly earnings were inflated by premium payments for work on the double holiday, celebrating the Japanese surrender. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in November 1945 was 94.7 cents per hour; this was 47.7 percent higher than in January 1939, 42.6 percent above January 1941, and 17.3 percent above October 1942.

Prices and Cost of Living

Food Purchases by City Families in February 1945

Summary

FAMILIES and single persons living in cities were incurring about the same expense per person, for food to be served at home, in February 1945 as in the preceding autumn. This was revealed in a cross-section survey by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Purchases of meat, poultry, and fresh produce were considerably smaller in the later period, and purchases of cereal products larger, at corresponding income levels. Per-capita expenditures for food for home use were only 25 percent greater among city families that had $4,000 or more income than among those receiving $1,000 or more, although outlays per family tripled. A leveling off in per-capita purchases of many basic foods by low- and high-income families that occurred between the spring of 1942 and the fall of 1944 [1] continued between September–October and February 1945.

Food Purchases in February 1945 and September–October 1944

The average weekly per-capita expenditure for food for home use was about the same in February 1945 as in September–October 1944, at corresponding income levels, as shown by the following figures:

Annual money income of—	*February 1945*	*September–October 1944*
Under $1,000	$3. 61	$3. 61
$1,000–$2,000	3. 78	4. 13
$2,000–$3,000	4. 30	4. 45
$3,000–$4,000	4. 34	4. 23
$4,000 and over	4. 51	4. 71

Purchases of meat and poultry, which were in extremely short supply in the late winter of 1944 and early spring of 1945, were consistently smaller in the later period. Fresh fruits and vegetables were also bought in smaller quantities. Consumption of fresh produce declined even more, since home gardens provided generous supplementation in the fall of 1944.[2]

Many fruits and vegetables were out of season in February 1945. Expenditure for fresh fruits declined relatively more than the quantities

[1] The reports for the earlier period were summarized in the Bureau's Bulletin No. 838 (Wartime Food Purchases) and compared with similar data collected in the spring of 1942. The figures for 1944 and 1945 are from the Bureau's survey of prices paid by consumers, which was conducted in two parts. Each part provided information on food purchases during 1 week—the first, a week in September–October 1944; the second, a week in February 1945. Bulletin No. 838 includes a description of the sampling procedure used in the survey.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, October 1945 (pp. 644-651): City Gardens in Wartime. (Reprinted as Serial No. R. 1789.)

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purchased, owing to increased use of citrus fruit and decreased purchases of other fresh fruits. Citrus fruit, in season in February but out of season in September and October, is generally cheaper per pound than peaches, pears, and apples, which are on the market in volume in the fall.

As would be expected during the winter season, use of flour and cereal products, other than baked goods, was considerably greater in February than in the preceding fall. Per-capita purchases in the two periods compared as follows:

Annual money income of—	*February 1945* (*pounds*)	*September–October 1944* (*pounds*)
Under $1,000	2. 86	2. 40
$1,000–$2,000	2. 50	1. 84
$2,000–$3,000	1. 94	1. 68
$3,000–$4,000	1. 56	1. 37
$4,000 and over	1. 68	1. 37

It appears that housewives served more "made dishes," which depended to a great extent on cereals, as the supply of meat became shorter. Purchases of bakery products showed a slight decline from the preceding fall, but the increase over March–June 1942 was sufficiently great to indicate that city families were continuing to use this means to conserve their time and their home supply of sugar and shortening.

There are clear differences in the amounts of certain foods purchased per family between September–October 1944 and February 1945, as shown above. The differences are more significant, however, when quantities purchased at each income level are compared on a per-person basis, since the average family size at each level was somewhat different in the two periods.[3]

Food Purchases in Relation to Income and Family Size

Outlays per family for food for home use were larger, the higher the family income. A major share of the difference was due to the greater number of persons eating at the family table in the higher income groups. Thus, the average food expenditures of families receiving $4,000 or more after taxes was nearly triple that of families with incomes below $1,000, but their per-capita expense was only 25 percent greater.

The close relationship between family size and food expenditures is further evidenced by the fact that, with few exceptions, an increase of one person in the size of families in the same income class meant a greater increase in average food expense than did the addition of $500 to the income of families of the same size. It is, nevertheless, clear that per-capita outlays for food are inversely related to family size, when incomes are similar. Although information is not available on the amounts of various foods purchased by families of different

[3] The average number of persons per family was considerably smaller in February 1945 than in September–October 1944 for the group receiving less than $1,000. It was smaller also in the $2,000–$3,000 income class but slightly larger in the other three classes. The differences undoubtedly reflect in part random sample fluctuations. They may also be due in part to the difference in income classification: Families covered in the 1945 food survey were classified by income received during the year 1944, after payment of income taxes; families covered in the 1944 food survey, by income received in August, after all pay-roll deductions. A special analysis of the 1945 survey reports indicates that classification by income after taxes as opposed to income after pay-roll deductions has no apparent effect on average expense for food at home or average family size. Further light would be thrown on the problem if comparable income reports were available from the same families for a 1-month and a 12-month period.

size, it is probable that at most income levels large families receive less adequate diets from a nutritional standpoint than small families with similar incomes.

TABLE 1.—*Average Expense for Food at Home by Housekeeping Families in Cities, by Family Size and Annual Money Income Class, 1 Week in February 1945* [1]

Annual money income after personal taxes	Average expense for food at home in 1 week for—							Average number of persons per family
	All families	Families containing—						
		1 person	2 persons	3 persons	4 persons	5 persons	6 or more persons	
Under $1,000	$6.35	$4.71	$7.44	$8.31	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.76
Under $500	5.30	3.69	7.50	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.60
$500–$1,000	6.88	5.40	7.41	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1.84
$1,000–$2,000	10.34	6.84	8.82	11.78	$12.42	$14.69	$16.38	2.74
$1,000–$1,500	9.44	6.26	8.46	11.86	11.93	(2)	(2)	2.49
$1,500–$2,000	10.83	7.44	9.03	11.76	12.82	14.91	16.30	2.87
$2,000–$3,000	13.09	5.73	10.73	13.23	16.26	18.96	21.15	3.05
$2,000–$2,500	12.81	5.15	11.31	12.29	16.65	19.00	18.67	3.06
$2,500—$3,000	13.35	(2)	10.19	14.12	16.00	18.93	(2)	3.05
$3,000–$4,000	15.98	11.25	10.33	14.77	16.91	19.67	23.55	3.69
$4,000 and over	18.50	(2)	12.32	15.58	18.48	19.75	27.48	4.09
$4,000–$5,000	17.79	(2)	12.12	15.81	16.96	19.57	26.28	4.05
$5,000 and over	19.05	(2)	12.58	15.39	19.28	19.85	28.51	4.12

[1] The term *family* is used to include single persons. All data presented are based on reports by those occupying dwellings with cooking facilities, i. e., housekeeping families and single persons. Family-size figures are based on the number of family members living at home during all or part of the week covered by the food report.

Food expense includes the cost of all food purchased during the week for use at home, whether or not paid for at the time. Expense for meals and other food in restaurants, etc., and for all alcoholic drinks is excluded.

The *income* by which a family is classified is the family's income in 1944 less personal tax payments (income, poll, and personal property) in 1944. Family income represents the sum of all types of money income received by family members during 1944: wage and salary earnings (less occupational expenses), entrepreneurial net income, or withdrawals and nonearned income from all sources, exclusive of inheritances, large gifts, and lump-sum insurance settlements.

[2] Averages not shown for fewer than 10 cases.

Between the spring of 1942 and the fall of 1944 there was clear evidence of a leveling off among income groups in the quantities of many basic foods purchased for home consumption, with increased purchases by the low-income groups and reduced purchases of many foods by higher-income families. There is evidence that this leveling off continued, to a less extent, in the 4- or 5-month interval between the two recent surveys. Differences in the average quantity of selected foods purchased per person by families in the highest and lowest income groups were as follows:

		February 1945	*September–October 1944*	*March–June 1942*
Meat	pound	0.31	0.45	0.92
Fresh fruits	do	.95	1.19	2.29
Fresh vegetables	do	.01	.83	1.16
Milk	quart	.64	1.10	.85

Rationing made it possible for persons in low-income families to obtain an equitable share of meat, fats and oils, and other foods in short supply. The tendency toward equalization also appeared in the case of certain other foods which were not rationed. In the case of nonrationed foods this undoubtedly reflects the operation of many factors that cannot be isolated.

TABLE 2.—*Purchases of Food for Home Use by Housekeeping Families in Cities, 1 Week in February 1945, by Annual Money Income Class* [1]

Item, and unit of purchase	Average expense in 1 week					Average quantity purchased in 1 week				
	Under $1,000	$1,000 to $2,000	$2,000 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 and over	Under $1,000	$1,000 to $2,000	$2,000 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 and over
All food	$6.35	$10.34	$13.09	$15.98	$18.50					
Meat, poultry, and fish—pound	1.62	2.71	3.68	4.53	5.13	4.15	6.57	8.49	10.40	11.52
Meat—do	1.16	1.95	2.65	3.39	3.66	3.11	4.98	6.36	8.08	8.50
Beef—do	.47	.75	1.09	1.35	1.51	1.26	1.89	2.69	3.22	3.51
Veal—do	.05	.11	.12	.18	.21	.14	.22	.27	.41	.47
Pork [2]—do	.31	.62	.77	.93	.98	.92	1.69	1.88	2.27	2.35
Lamb—do	.11	.14	.24	.30	.33	.28	.36	.55	.70	.78
Variety meat and game—do	.22	.33	.43	.63	.63	.51	.82	.97	1.48	1.39
Poultry—do	.08	.52	.70	.75	.99	.61	1.05	1.37	1.49	2.00
Fish and other sea food—do	.18	.24	.33	.39	.48	.43	.54	.76	.83	1.02
Fresh and frozen—do	.12	.16	.22	.26	.33	.31	.40	.54	.61	.75
Canned and cured—do	.06	.08	.11	.13	.15	.12	.14	.22	.22	.27
Dairy products and eggs	1.45	2.44	3.12	3.75	4.23					
Dairy products	1.02	1.77	2.28	2.72	3.13					
Fluid milk—quart	.58	1.08	1.39	1.71	1.84	4.05	7.29	9.18	11.14	12.09
Cream—pint	.04	.06	.10	.11	.20	.14	.21	.37	.39	.69
Ice cream—quart	.04	.07	.13	.14	.30	.09	.14	.26	.28	.59
Butter—pound	.16	.23	.32	.34	.37	.32	.46	.62	.66	.71
Cheese—do	.08	.14	.20	.25	.28	.22	.31	.51	.56	.67
Evaporated milk—14½-oz. can	.12	.17	.13	.16	.13	1.11	1.60	1.20	1.43	1.20
Condensed milk [3]—pound		.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.05	.09	.09	.09
Eggs—dozen	.43	.67	.84	1.03	1.10	.83	1.26	1.58	1.95	2.07
Fats and oils—pound	.27	.48	.42	.54	.55	1.03	1.92	1.64	2.10	2.04
Oleomargarine—do	.08	.12	.14	.14	.15	.31	.48	.53	.54	.56
Lard—do	.05	.13	.06	.10	.07	.24	.59	.30	.50	.34
Other shortening—do	.07	.09	.08	.10	.09	.29	.39	.34	.43	.35
Salad dressing and oil—do	.07	.14	.14	.20	.24	.19	.46	.47	.63	.79
Sugar and other sweets—do	.24	.32	.42	.51	.65	2.56	2.64	3.12	3.49	4.33
Sugar—do	.15	.14	.16	.18	.22	2.23	2.06	2.36	2.61	3.19
Jam, jelly, molasses, syrup, candy, etc—pound	.09	.18	.26	.33	.43	.33	.58	.76	.88	1.14
Cereals and bakery products—do	.98	1.57	1.79	2.17	2.49	9.08	13.71	14.44	16.30	18.31
Flour—do	.19	.27	.23	.21	.27	2.88	4.33	3.04	2.92	3.65
Ready-to-eat and uncooked cereals [4]—pound	.18	.21	.24	.25	.26	1.78	2.02	2.25	2.16	2.32
Other cereal products [5]—do	.06	.06	.08	.09	.12	.37	.49	.63	.69	.91
Bakery products—do	.55	1.03	1.24	1.62	1.84	4.05	6.87	8.52	10.53	11.43
Bread and rolls—do	.33	.52	.66	.81	.84	3.09	4.87	6.37	7.72	7.94
Crackers—do	.07	.09	.10	.13	.13	.36	.46	.51	.64	.62
Cakes, cookies, etc—do	.15	.42	.48	.68	.87	.60	1.54	1.64	2.17	2.87
Fruits and vegetables	1.26	1.96	2.57	3.11	3.74					
Fresh—do	1.01	1.45	1.95	2.39	2.94	11.45	17.60	22.66	26.41	30.56
Fruits—do	.44	.72	.94	1.09	1.43	5.01	8.26	10.73	11.74	15.55
Citrus—do	.27	.40	.56	.63	.84	3.77	5.42	7.74	7.81	11.29
Other fresh—do	.17	.32	.37	.45	.55	1.24	2.83	2.98	3.91	4.17
Other frozen—do	0	(*)	.01	.01	.04	0	.01	.01	.02	.09
Vegetables—do	.57	.73	1.01	1.30	1.51	6.44	9.34	11.93	14.67	15.01
Potatoes—do	.20	.32	.41	.45	.43	3.27	5.92	7.61	8.47	7.63
Other fresh—do	.36	.37	.55	.78	.95	3.14	3.32	4.15	5.99	6.99
Other frozen—do	.01	.04	.05	.07	.13	.03	.10	.17	.21	.39
Canned	.15	.38	.51	.58	.64					
Fruits	.04	.15	.21	.21	.26					
Regular canned—No. 2½ can	.03	.07	.11	.10	.12	.10	.22	.30	.33	.38
Strained and chopped for infants—ounces	0	.02	.04	.03	.03	0	.05	.14	.10	.12
Juices—No. 2 can	.01	.06	.06	.08	.11	.06	.35	.32	.43	.64
Vegetables	.11	.23	.30	.37	.38					
Tomato products and juices [6]—No. 2 can	.02	.07	.07	.08	.08	.17	.41	.45	.52	.52
Other canned (regular) [7]—No. 2 can	.09	.15	.19	.24	.27	.56	.99	1.20	1.47	1.62
Strained and chopped (for infants)—ounce	(*)	.01	.04	.05	.03	.01	.05	.14	.18	.11
Dried—pound	.10	.13	.11	.14	.16	.60	.74	.67	.68	.83
Fruits—do	.06	.08	.08	.10	.12	.30	.34	.40	.40	.50
Vegetables—do	.04	.05	.03	.04	.04	.30	.40	.27	.28	.33

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Purchases of Food for Home Use by Housekeeping Families in Cities, 1 Week in February 1945, by Annual Money Income Class* [1]—Continued

Item, and unit of purchase	Average expense in 1 week					Average quantity purchased in 1 week				
	Under $1,000	$1,000 to $2,000	$2,000 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 and over	Under $1,000	$1,000 to $2,000	$2,000 to $3,000	$3,000 to $4,000	$4,000 and over
Miscellaneous foods	.53	.86	1.09	1.37	1.71	------	------	------	------	------
Beverages	.30	.46	.57	.65	.83	------	------	------	------	------
Coffee [8]	.20	.27	.34	.36	.42	------	------	------	------	------
Soft drinks	.04	.11	.14	.16	.27	------	------	------	------	------
Other [9]	.06	.08	.09	.13	.14	------	------	------	------	------
Nuts and peanut butter	.03	.06	.09	.11	.14	------	------	------	------	------
Packaged desserts	.02	.03	.06	.07	.07	------	------	------	------	------
All soups, etc.	.13	.17	.21	.31	.39	------	------	------	------	------
Soups, canned	.08	.11	.13	.18	.20	------	------	------	------	------
Soups, dehydrated	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	------	------	------	------	------
Prepared and partially prepared foods and food mixtures	.04	.05	.06	.12	.18	------	------	------	------	------
Relishes, pickles, olives	.01	.03	.05	.07	.11	------	------	------	------	------
Seasoning, flavorings, and other accessories	.04	.06	.06	.08	.10	------	------	------	------	------
Foods prepared for infants [10]	0	.04	.04	.06	.05	------	------	------	------	------
Other food	(*)	.01	.01	.02	.02	------	------	------	------	------

[1] See table 1, footnote 1. Averages are based on all housekeeping families and single persons in the class, whether or not they purchased the item during the week.
[3] Includes bacon and salt pork as well as fresh and other smoked or cured pork.
[5] Includes also dried milk, but purchases are negligible.
[4] Includes rice, hominy grits, corn meal, cornstarch, and cereals prepared for infants.
[5] Includes macaroni, spaghetti, noodles, popcorn, etc.
[6] Includes canned tomatoes, catsup, chili sauce, tomato sauce, puree, tomato juice, and mixed vegetable juices.
[7] Includes a very small amount of vegetable juice without a tomato base.
[8] Includes concentrates, decaffeinated coffee, and coffee substitutes.
[9] Includes tea, cocoa, malted drinks, powdered fruit drink mixes, etc.
[10] Excludes vegetables, fruits, and cereals prepared for infants.
* Less than 0.5 cent.

Index of Consumers' Prices in Large Cities, December 1945

RETAIL prices of goods and services commonly bought by moderate-income city workers advanced 0.5 percent between mid-November and mid-December to bring the consumers' price index to its highest level since the spring of 1921. Higher prices for all principal groups of items in the family budget, except rent, contributed to this rise. The consumers' price index published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for December 15, 1945, was 129.9 percent of the 1935–39 average, and 31.7 percent higher than in August 1939, the month preceding the outbreak of the war in Europe.

For December, food costs in large cities rose 0.9 percent, as higher prices were reported for all groups except beverages. Prices of fresh fruits and vegetables increased 3.6 percent as a result of advances for apples, oranges, cabbage, lettuce, onions, potatoes, spinach, and sweetpotatoes. The largest increases were 21 percent for sweetpotatoes, which went up under higher winter ceiling prices and small supplies; and cabbage and spinach up seasonally by 14 and 11 percent, respectively. After price controls were removed, orange prices, which usually drop during this time of the year, increased 4.5 percent in December. Prices of butter and peanut butter increased further by 0.6 and 5.8 percent, respectively, between November 13 and

December 11, reflecting primarily the withdrawal of subsidies for these products on November 1.

Average costs of clothing advanced for the thirtieth consecutive month and were 0.5 percent higher in mid-December than in mid-November. Retailers again reported that demand for men's apparel far outstripped the quantities obtainable. Further disappearance of low and medium-priced clothing was reflected in higher costs for topcoats, wool suits, dress trousers, jackets, sweaters, work clothing, business shirts, pajamas, underwear, and socks. Prices of heavyweight union suits were higher as a result of increases allowed by

TABLE 1.—*Consumers' price index for moderate-income families, December 1945 and earlier periods*

Group	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Dec. 1944	May 1943	May 1942	Jan. 1941	Aug. 1939
	This month	Last month	Last year	Hold the line order	General Maximum Price Regulation	"Little steel" decision	Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935–39=100)						
All items	[1] 129.9	129.3	127.0	125.1	116.0	100.8	98.6
Food	141.4	140.1	137.4	143.0	121.6	97.6	93.5
Clothing	149.4	148.7	142.8	127.9	126.2	101.2	100.3
Rent	108.3	-------	108.3	108.0	109.9	105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity and ice	[2] 110.3	110.1	109.4	107.6	104.9	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	[3] 94.0	94.0	94.8	96.1	96.6	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	126.1	125.8	123.6	118.7	112.9	104.0	96.3
Housefurnishings	148.3	147.6	143.0	125.1	122.2	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous	124.8	124.6	123.1	115.3	110.9	101.8	100.4
	Percent of change to December 1945						
All items	-------	+0.5	+2.3	+3.8	+12.0	+28.9	+31.7
Food	-------	+.9	+2.9	−1.1	+16.3	+44.9	+41.2
Clothing	-------	+.5	+4.6	+16.8	+18.4	+47.6	+49.0
Rent	-------	-------	0	+.3	−1.5	+3.1	+3.8
Fuel, electricity and ice	-------	+.2	+.8	+2.5	+5.1	+9.4	+13.1
Gas and electricity	-------	0	−.8	−2.2	−2.7	−3.6	−5.1
Other fuels and ice	-------	+.2	+2.0	+6.2	+11.7	+21.2	+30.9
Housefurnishings	-------	+.5	+3.7	+18.5	+21.4	+48.0	+47.4
Miscellaneous	-------	+.2	+1.4	+8.2	+12.5	+22.6	+24.3

[1] Index would be 129.8 if 53-percent rebate on gas bills in Detroit were included.
[2] Index would be 109.7 if 53-percent rebate on gas bills in Detroit were included.
[3] Index would be 92.9 if 53-percent rebate on gas bills in Detroit were included.

OPA to encourage production. Larger supplies of preticketed garments resulted in somewhat lower prices for women's rayon crepe dresses, while the cost of moderate-price rayon prints and inexpensive cotton frocks advanced slightly. Prices of rayon slips, gloves, and girls' coats also rose. Prices of footwear edged upward, and costs of shoe repair services increased moderately in six cities.

Prices of housefurnishings increased 0.5 percent over the month. Higher prices were reported for living-room, dining-room, and bedroom furniture, sofa beds, cook stoves, dinnerware, blankets, sheets, and towels. Miscellaneous goods and services costs rose 0.2 percent as costs of medical care increased slightly in 20 cities; newspaper prices increased in St. Louis, and higher prices were reported for cigars and pipe tobacco in a number of cities.

With war veterans returning from overseas, housing conditions in most large cities are more critical than at any time during the war. Rents for occupied dwellings have remained stable on the average, however, since the last rent survey. Slight increases were reported in six cities while rents decreased in eight cities surveyed. Between June and December rents declined 0.9 percent in Mobile and 0.3 percent in Savannah and Portland (Oreg.), where there were large

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Changes in Consumers' Price Index to December 1945, From Specified Dates, by Cities*

City	November 1945 last month	December 1944 last year	May 1943 hold-the-line order	May 1942 general maximum price regulation [1]	January 1941 little-steel decision [1]	August 1939 month before war in Europe
Average, all cities	+0.5	+2.3	+3.8	+12.0	+28.9	+31.7
Atlanta, Ga.		+2.1	+5.2	+14.6	+31.7	+34.1
Baltimore, Md.	+.5	+2.6	+3.4	+12.1	+31.6	+34.2
Birmingham, Ala.	+.4	+1.9	+6.1	+12.5	+31.4	+35.5
Boston, Mass.	+.2	+1.1	+2.1	+10.1	+26.0	+28.6
Buffalo, N. Y.	+.3	+2.1	+.8	+7.7	+27.4	+31.8
Chicago, Ill.	+.5	+1.3	+2.8	+9.9	+26.5	+29.7
Cincinnati, Ohio	[1] +.2	+2.3	+4.6	+11.7	+30.0	+33.1
Cleveland, Ohio	+.3	+2.5	+3.4	+11.4	+29.7	+32.3
Denver, Colo.	+1.2	+1.7	+3.1	+11.0	+28.3	+30.1
Detroit, Mich.	+.2	+3.0	+3.1	+10.5	+30.0	+33.3
Houston, Tex.	+.2	+2.1	+2.3	+9.6	+28.5	+26.4
Indianapolis, Ind.		+1.9	+3.7	+9.7	+27.8	+33.1
Jacksonville, Fla.		+2.2	+5.7	+15.3	+34.8	+39.5
Kansas City, Mo.	+.5	+2.6	+4.5	+12.2	+30.1	+29.8
Los Angeles, Calif.	+.5	+3.6	+6.3	+13.2	+30.4	+33.0
Manchester, N. H.		+1.3	+2.3	+10.6	+30.7	+33.9
Memphis, Tenn.		+2.4	+4.5	+13.9	+33.6	+36.3
Milwaukee, Wis.		+2.3	+2.7	+11.1	+28.2	+31.1
Minneapolis, Minn.	+.4	+2.4	+3.5	+8.8	+23.9	+26.5
Mobile, Ala.		+1.7	+2.7	+10.4	+30.6	+33.0
New Orleans, La.		+1.8	+2.7	+12.8	+31.1	+33.7
New York, N. Y.	+.5	+2.5	+5.6	+15.7	+29.8	+32.4
Norfolk, Va.		+1.8	+1.6	+11.9	+33.2	+37.0
Philadelphia, Pa.	+.3	+2.1	+3.0	+12.1	+29.6	+31.5
Pittsburgh, Pa.	+.7	+2.3	+4.8	+13.0	+29.3	+33.0
Portland, Maine		+.6	+1.7	+9.2	+28.3	+30.2
Portland, Oreg.		+3.0	+4.8	+12.8	+34.6	+37.2
Richmond, Va.		+1.6	+2.6	+10.1	+26.9	+29.0
St. Louis, Mo.	+1.3	+2.5	+3.5	+11.1	+27.1	+30.9
San Francisco, Calif.	+1.0	+2.3	+6.0	+15.5	+33.4	+36.8
Savannah, Ga.	−.1	+2.3	+4.4	+13.9	+35.8	+38.7
Scranton, Pa.		+2.5	+2.3	+12.9	+29.1	+33.4
Seattle, Wash.	+1.4	+2.7	+4.0	+11.1	+31.9	+34.3
Washington, D. C.	+.3	+3.3	+5.0	+13.3	+30.0	+31.7

[1] Change from October 1945.

cut-backs in war production. In Scranton, where rents remained stable without rent control during the war, there has been a gradual rise during the past year, resulting in a total increase of 1.2 percent, the largest reported during the year for any of the large cities.

Anthracite and bituminous-coal price ceilings were raised by OPA to meet the minimum profit margins previously assured to producers. In December, anthracite prices were the highest since the first quarter of 1926, and those of bituminous coal were at the highest levels since 1923. A rebate was allowed to consumers of gas in Detroit.

The indexes in the accompanying tables are based on time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than in another. The data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941, in table 1. For that month they were estimated for January 1 (the date used in the "Little Steel" decision of the National War Labor Board), by assuming an even rate of change from December 15, 1940, to the next pricing date. The President's "hold-the-line" order was issued April 8, 1943. The peak of the rise which led to that order was reached in May, which is, therefore, used for this comparison.

Food prices are collected monthly in 56 cities during the first 4 days of the week which includes the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month. Aggregate costs of foods in each city, weighted to represent food purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. In March 1943, the number of cities included in the food index was increased from 51 to 56, and the number of foods from 54 to 61. Prices of clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services are obtained in 34 large cities in March, June, September, and December. In intervening months, prices are collected in 21 of the 34 cities for a shorter list of goods and services. Rents are surveyed semiannually in most of the 34 cities (in March and September, or in June and December). In computing the all-items indexes for individual cities and the rent index for the average of large cities because of the general stability of average rents at present, the indexes are held constant in cities not surveyed during the current quarter. Prices for fuel, electricity, and ice are collected monthly in 34 large cities.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families in Large Cities, 1935 to December 1945*

Year and month	Indexes (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.8
1944	125.5	136.1	138.8	108.2	109.8	136.4	121.3
1945:							
Jan. 15	127.1	137.3	143.0	(1)	109.7	143.6	123.3
Feb. 15	126.9	136.5	143.3	(1)	110.0	144.0	123.4
Mar. 15	126.8	135.9	143.7	108.3	110.0	144.5	123.6
Apr. 15	127.1	136.6	144.1	(1)	109.8	144.9	123.8
May 15	128.1	138.8	144.6	(1)	110.0	145.4	123.9
June 15	129.0	141.1	145.4	108.3	110.0	145.8	124.0
July 15	129.4	141.7	145.9	(1)	111.2	145.6	124.3
Aug. 15	129.3	140.9	146.4	(1)	111.4	146.0	124.5
Sept. 15	128.9	139.4	148.2	108.3	110.7	146.8	124.6
Oct. 15 [2]	128.9	139.3	148.3	(1)	110.6	146.6	124.5
Nov. 15 [2]	129.2	140.1	148.4	(1)	110.5	147.1	124.4
Dec. 15 [2]							

[1] Rents not surveyed in this month.
[2] Preliminary figures.

Retail Prices of Food in December 1945

RETAIL prices of food in December 1945 in relation to those in selected preceding periods are shown in the accompanying tables.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods*

Commodity group	Nov. 13, 1945, to Dec. 11, 1945	Dec. 12, 1944, to Dec. 11, 1945	May 18, 1943, to Dec. 11, 1945	Jan. 14, 1941, to Dec. 11, 1945	Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 11, 1945
All foods	+0.9	+2.9	−1.1	+44.6	+51.2
Cereals and bakery products	+.1	+.6	+1.5	+15.1	+16.9
Meats	+.2	+1.0	−5.1	+29.8	+37.1
Beef and veal	+.1	0	−9.8	+8.1	+18.8
Pork	0	+.3	−10.3	+30.8	+28.0
Lamb	+.1	+.6	−3.7	+38.2	+38.1
Chickens	+.4	+1.7	+3.7	+57.5	+61.8
Fish, fresh and canned	+.4	+5.1	+10.6	+86.8	+122.6
Dairy products	+.2	+2.0	−.5	+29.6	+46.3
Eggs	+.6	+2.5	+36.0	+98.4	+113.0
Fruits and vegetables	+2.9	+8.0	−7.1	+90.0	+91.9
Fresh	+3.6	+9.6	−8.5	+101.7	+103.0
Canned	−.2	+.3	−.6	+42.6	+42.2
Dried	+.1	+1.4	+6.8	+69.4	+86.8
Beverages	0	+.5	+.3	+37.4	+31.6
Fats and oils	+.6	+1.5	−1.0	+55.8	+48.0
Sugar and sweets	+.1	+.2	−.8	+32.8	+32.4

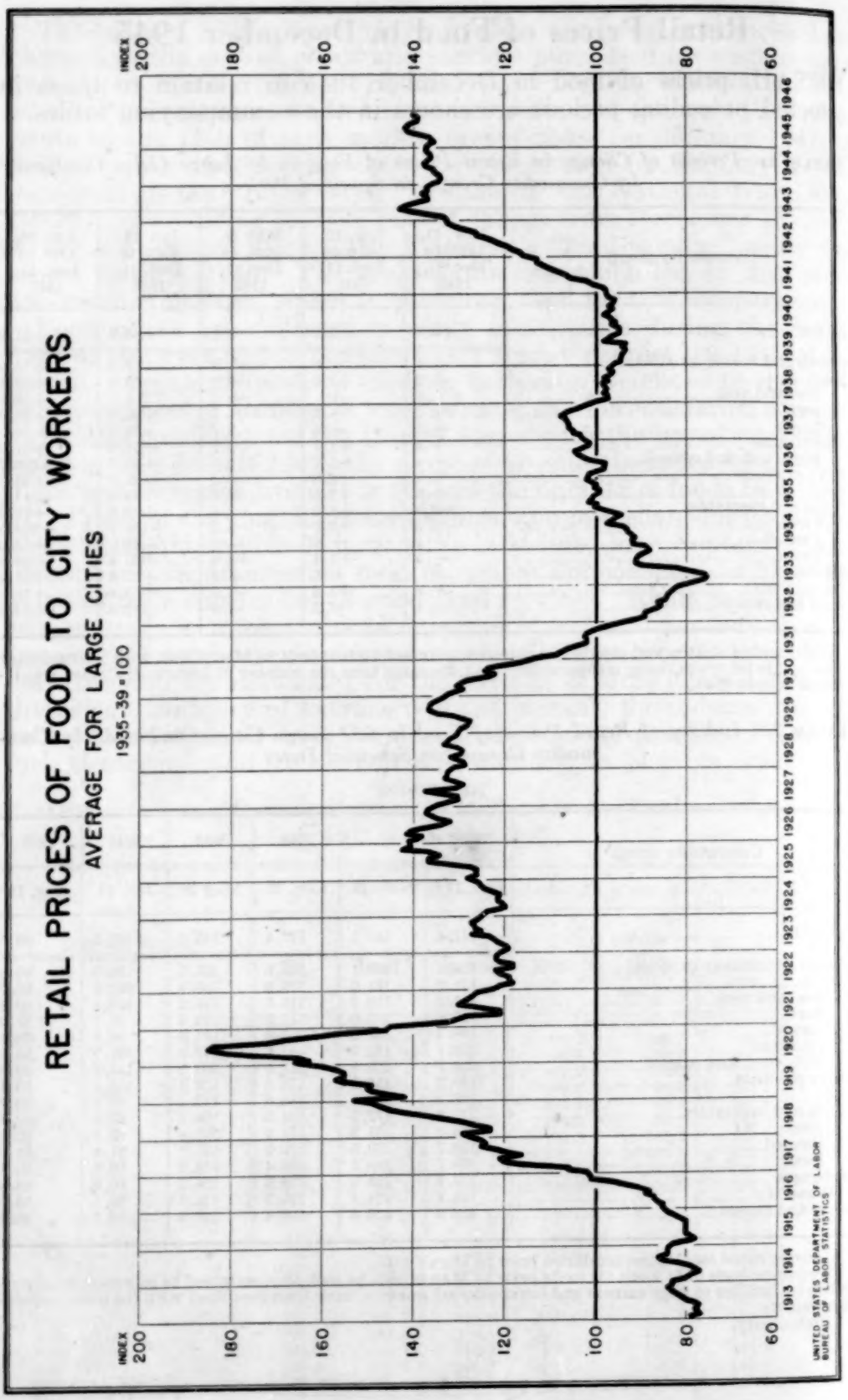
[1] The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Food in 56*[1] *Large Cities Combined,*[2] *by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1945		1944	1943	1941	1939
	Dec. 11[3]	Nov. 13	Dec. 12	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	141.4	140.1	137.4	143.0	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	109.2	109.1	108.6	107.6	94.9	93.4
Meats	131.2	131.0	129.9	138.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	118.3	118.2	118.3	131.2	109.4	99.6
Pork	112.6	112.6	112.3	125.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	136.4	136.2	135.6	141.6	98.7	98.8
Chickens	153.1	152.5	150.6	147.6	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	221.7	220.8	211.0	200.5	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	136.2	135.9	133.5	136.9	105.1	93.1
Eggs	193.2	192.1	188.5	142.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	177.3	172.3	164.2	190.8	93.3	92.4
Fresh	188.4	181.9	171.9	205.8	93.4	92.8
Canned	130.3	130.6	129.9	131.1	91.4	91.6
Dried	168.7	168.5	166.4	158.0	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.9	124.9	124.3	124.5	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	125.1	124.4	123.3	126.3	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.6	126.5	126.4	127.6	95.3	95.6

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.
[2] Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[3] Preliminary.


RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD TO CITY WORKERS
AVERAGE FOR LARGE CITIES
1935-39=100
INDEX
200
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 1946
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

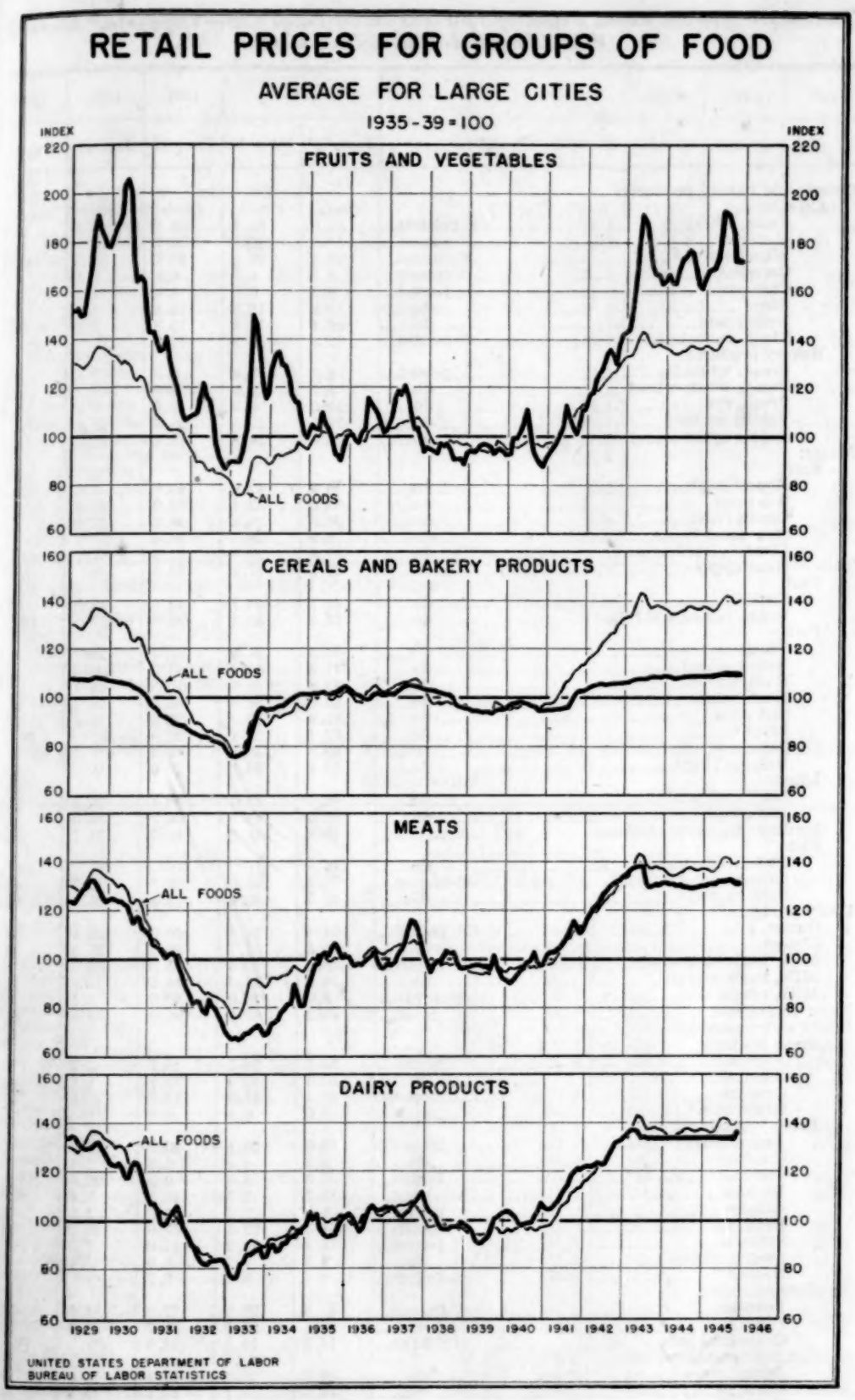

RETAIL PRICES FOR GROUPS OF FOOD
AVERAGE FOR LARGE CITIES
1935-39=100
INDEX
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES
ALL FOODS
CEREALS AND BAKERY PRODUCTS
ALL FOODS
MEATS
ALL FOODS
DAIRY PRODUCTS
ALL FOODS
220
200
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 1946
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *December 1945, Compared With Earlier Months*

Article		1945		1944	1941	1939
		Dec. 11[2]	Nov. 13	Dec. 12	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	64.0	64.1	64.1	41.4	35.8
Macaroni	pound	15.6	15.7	15.7	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal [3]	28 ounces	23.3	23.3	23.1	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes	8 ounces	6.7	6.7	6.5	7.1	7.0
Corn meal	pound	6.5	6.5	6.4	4.2	4.0
Rice [3]	do	12.9	12.9	12.8	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats	do	10.4	10.4	10.2	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake [3]	20 ounces	12.4	12.8	12.3	(4)	(4)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	8.8	8.8	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.7	9.6	9.6	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye	do	10.0	9.9	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies	do	29.0	29.5	28.9	25.1	(5)
Soda crackers	do	18.8	18.8	18.9	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	40.9	40.9	40.6	38.6	36.4
Rib roast	do	33.0	33.1	32.9	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast	do	28.3	28.3	28.2	25.2	22.5
Stew meat [3]	do	29.9	29.6	30.4	(4)	(4)
Liver	do	37.3	37.3	37.3	(4)	(4)
Hamburger	do	27.5	27.4	27.5	(4)	(4)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	44.7	44.7	44.8	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [3]	do	35.9	35.3	35.9	(4)	(4)
Pork:						
Chops	do	37.3	37.2	37.3	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced	do	41.2	41.2	40.9	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced	do	49.8	49.6	50.0	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole	do	35.0	34.9	35.2	26.2	27.4
Salt pork	do	21.9	22.0	21.9	16.7	15.4
Liver [3]	do	22.1	22.1	22.0	(4)	(4)
Sausage [3]	do	38.8	38.8	38.5	(4)	(4)
Bologna, big [3]	do	34.1	34.1	33.9	(4)	(4)
Lamb:						
Leg	do	40.3	40.4	40.1	27.8	27.6
Rib chops	do	45.6	45.9	45.7	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	46.9	47.0	45.0	31.1	30.9
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	23.2	23.0	22.5	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [3]	do	40.9	40.4	40.4	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:						
Butter	pound	54.7	54.4	50.0	38.0	30.7
Cheese	do	35.5	35.7	36.0	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	15.6	15.6	15.6	13.0	12.0
Milk, fresh (store)	do	14.5	14.5	14.5	11.9	11.0
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	9.9	10.0	10.0	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh	dozen	68.2	67.9	66.9	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits:						
Apples	pound	14.3	14.1	10.7	5.2	4.4
Bananas	do	10.5	10.5	11.1	6.6	6.1
Oranges	dozen	49.1	47.0	43.7	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [3]	each	9.0	8.5	8.8	(7)	(7)
Fresh vegetables:						
Beans, green	pound	19.6	20.1	20.5	14.0	7.2
Cabbage	do	5.0	4.4	5.8	3.4	3.9
Carrots	bunch	8.9	9.0	9.2	6.0	4.6
Lettuce	head	12.7	12.3	12.5	8.4	8.4
Onions	pound	7.2	7.0	5.0	3.6	3.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	64.3	62.3	67.6	29.2	34.4
Spinach	pound	11.3	10.2	11.9	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes	do	9.3	7.7	8.0	5.0	5.5
Beets [3]	bunch	8.7	8.9	9.7	(4)	(4)
Canned fruits:						
Peaches	No. 2½ can	27.8	28.0	27.8	16.5	17.1
Pineapple	do	26.4	26.5	26.7	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	14.3	14.3	14.4	(7)	(7)
Canned vegetables:						
Beans, green	do	13.3	13.2	13.1	10.0	10.0
Corn	do	14.8	14.7	14.7	10.7	10.4
Peas	do	13.4	13.3	13.2	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes	do	12.5	12.4	12.1	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [3]	11-oz. can	13.2	13.0	13.3	(4)	(4)
Dried fruits: Prunes	pound	17.4	17.1	17.0	9.6	8.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,* [1] *December 1945, Compared With Earlier Months*—Continued

Article	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Dec. 11[2]	Nov. 13	Dec. 12	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Fruits and vegetables—Continued					
Dried vegetables:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Navy beans, pound	11.3	11.4	11.1	6.5	5.8
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle [3], ounce	3.9	3.8	3.7	(4)	(4)
Beverages:					
Coffee, pound	30.7	30.7	30.3	20.7	22.3
Tea, ¼ pound	24.0	24.1	24.0	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [3], ½ pound	10.4	10.3	10.4	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:					
Lard, pound	18.7	18.7	18.8	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard:					
In cartons, do	19.8	19.9	20.2	11.3	11.7
In other containers, do	24.5	24.5	24.8	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing, pint	25.6	24.7	25.8	20.1	(4)
Oleomargarine, pound	23.7	24.1	24.2	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter, do	31.0	29.3	28.3	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [3], pint	29.8	29.9	30.7	(5)	(5)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar, pound	6.7	6.6	6.7	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup, 24 ounces	15.7	15.7	15.8	13.6	13.7
Molasses [3], 18 ounces	15.8	15.8	15.9	13.4	13.6
Apple butter [3], 16 ounces	14.6	[8] 14.4	13.5	(4)	(4)

[1] Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Not included in index.
[4] First priced, February 1943.
[5] Not priced.
[6] Composite price not computed.
[7] First priced, October 1941.
[8] Revised.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

City	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Dec. 11[2]	Nov. 13	Dec. 12	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	141.4	140.1	137.4	97.8	93.5
Atlanta, Ga	141.6	141.0	138.8	94.3	92.5
Baltimore, Md	148.1	147.5	143.9	97.9	94.7
Birmingham, Ala	145.2	143.8	142.3	96.0	90.7
Boston, Mass	134.5	133.8	132.7	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport, Conn	136.8	136.3	134.6	96.5	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y	137.6	136.7	134.1	100.2	94.5
Butte, Mont	139.2	137.9	134.3	98.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa [3]	144.3	142.8	139.9	95.9	----
Charleston, S. C	138.9	138.4	135.0	95.9	95.1
Chicago, Ill	139.3	137.8	136.5	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio	138.7	137.7	134.7	96.5	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio	144.8	143.8	140.6	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	133.5	133.0	129.4	93.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex	137.5	137.0	133.4	92.6	91.7
Denver, Colo	141.7	137.9	137.9	94.8	92.7
Detroit, Mich	138.3	137.5	132.7	97.0	90.6
Fall River, Mass	134.8	134.3	132.2	97.5	95.4
Houston, Tex	140.9	139.5	135.9	102.6	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind	137.7	136.3	133.8	98.2	90.7
Jackson, Miss. [3]	150.0	150.1	151.3	105.3	----
Jacksonville, Fla	150.7	149.5	146.8	98.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo	135.3	133.8	131.0	92.4	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn. [3]	159.8	160.0	158.3	97.1	----
Little Rock, Ark	139.8	138.8	137.0	95.6	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif	150.9	149.2	143.9	101.8	94.6
Louisville, Ky	135.2	134.2	132.0	95.5	92.1
Manchester, N. H	137.3	136.1	133.6	96.6	94.9
Memphis, Tenn	151.8	148.8	145.6	94.2	89.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Dates*—Continued

[1935-39=100]

City	1945		1944	1941	1939
	Dec. 11 [2]	Nov. 13	Dec. 12	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Milwaukee, Wis.	139.1	137.8	135.2	95.9	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn.	135.1	133.7	130.4	99.0	95.0
Mobile, Ala.	148.9	148.4	144.6	97.9	95.5
Newark, N. J.	144.0	143.6	140.2	98.8	95.6
New Haven, Conn.	135.8	135.3	135.3	95.7	93.7
New Orleans, La.	152.7	153.2	150.3	101.9	97.6
New York, N. Y.	143.3	141.7	138.7	99.5	95.8
Norfolk, Va.	145.2	144.3	143.2	95.8	93.6
Omaha, Nebr.	134.5	132.8	130.0	97.9	92.3
Peoria, Ill.	145.7	145.4	140.5	99.0	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	138.7	137.9	135.0	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa.	140.3	139.7	136.1	98.0	92.5
Portland, Maine	135.2	133.9	133.1	95.3	95.9
Portland, Oreg.	153.9	151.4	148.1	101.7	96.1
Providence, R. I.	140.3	139.0	135.7	96.3	93.7
Richmond, Va.	138.6	137.8	137.1	93.7	92.2
Rochester, N. Y.	137.7	135.1	134.0	99.9	92.3
St. Louis, Mo.	144.1	141.4	139.5	99.2	93.8
St. Paul, Minn.	133.7	132.8	129.1	98.6	94.3
Salt Lake City, Utah	146.5	145.6	141.9	97.5	94.6
San Francisco, Calif.	154.1	151.5	149.1	99.6	93.8
Savannah, Ga.	154.4	155.6	150.5	100.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa.	141.3	139.5	137.2	97.5	92.1
Seattle, Wash.	149.6	145.3	143.9	101.0	94.5
Springfield, Ill.	146.5	145.5	142.0	96.2	94.1
Washington, D. C.	140.9	140.8	137.1	97.7	94.1
Wichita, Kans.[3]	152.1	150.6	147.3	97.2	.....
Winston-Salem, N. C.[3]	142.3	142.1	138.7	93.7	.....

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943) weighted to represent total purchases by wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] June 1940=100.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Prices in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *1913 to December 1945*

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1929	132.5	*1944*		*1945*	
1914	81.8	1930	126.0				
1915	80.9	1931	103.9	January	136.1	January	137.3
1916	90.8	1932	86.5	February	134.5	February	136.5
1917	116.9	1933	84.1	March	134.1	March	135.9
1918	134.4	1934	93.7	April	134.6	April	136.6
1919	149.8	1935	100.4	May	135.5	May	138.8
1920	168.8	1936	101.3	June	135.7	June	141.1
1921	128.3	1937	105.3	July	137.4	July	141.7
1922	119.9	1938	97.8	August	137.7	August	140.9
1923	124.0	1939	95.2	September	137.0	September	139.4
1924	122.8	1940	96.6	October	136.4	October	139.3
1925	132.9	1941	105.5	November	136.5	November	140.1
1926	137.4	1942	123.9	December	137.4	December	141.4
1927	132.3	1943	138.0				
1928	130.8	1944	136.1				

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1945

CONTINUED price advances for both agricultural and industrial commodities during December caused a rise of 0.3 percent in the index of commodity prices in primary markets [1] prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. At a new postwar high—107.1 percent of the 1926 average—the index was 2.3 percent above December 1944 and 42.8 percent above August 1939.

Average prices for building materials rose 0.7 percent from November to December, the largest increase for any major group. The group index for foods moved up 0.6 percent, while metals and metal products and chemicals and allied products each rose 0.4 percent. Average prices for farm products and for textile products each rose 0.3 percent, and there were advances of 0.2 percent for fuel and lighting materials and 0.1 percent for hides and leather products. Group indexes for housefurnishing goods and miscellaneous commodities remained unchanged.

Primary-market prices for raw materials rose 0.3 percent, average prices for semimanufactured articles 0.7 percent, and those for manufactured goods 0.3 percent. The group index for all commodities other than farm products and foods advanced 0.3 percent, an acceleration of the rise of earlier months.

The rise of 0.3 percent in average market prices of farm products reflected higher prices for grains and fruits and vegetables. Heavy demand from both domestic and foreign buyers, and the short crops of most feed grains were principal factors in higher quotations for grains. Prices of oats, the only feed grain in good supply, continued to move up during December. Quotations for wheat, in inadequate supply despite a large crop, advanced fractionally in some markets. Rye prices declined, following the announcement of ceiling prices on the 1946 crop, approximately 25 percent below spot prices late in November. Apple prices rose less than is usual at this season, because of the large proportion of poorer grades on the market, but prices in December 1945 were almost twice those a year earlier. Quotations for oranges advanced on holiday buying of better qualities. More than the usual seasonal advance occurred in prices for potatoes, as boxcar shortages slowed the movement of the heavy crop to market. Eggs dropped seasonally with a shortage of better quality eggs limiting the decrease. Cotton quotations moved up as increased exports reduced stocks of lower grade fibers. Domestic wool declined following governmental action to bring prices into a more favorable position with foreign grades. Prices for cattle were lower and hog quotations declined from ceiling for the first time since January 1945. Sheep quotations advanced, but the rise for lambs was limited by higher subsidies to producers, established December 1. Live poultry was higher in price as the result of holiday demand.

The average price advance of 4.0 percent for fruits and vegetables, with smaller increases for other commodities, raised the group index for foods by 0.6 percent. Butter prices continued to rise following removal of the subsidy, and quotations for powdered milk were higher.

[1] The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data, for the most part, represent prices in primary markets. In general, the prices are those charged by manufacturers or producers or are those prevailing on commodity exchanges. The monthly index is calculated from a monthly average of one-day-a-week prices. It should not be compared directly with the weekly wholesale price index, which is designed as an indicator of week-to-week changes. Indexes for the last 2 months are preliminary.

Wheat-flour prices were higher with market support from Army buying for export, while rye flour dropped reflecting lower grain prices. Canned pears from the 1945 pack declined with a ceiling revision to account for lighter syrup used in packing.

Higher prices for a number of textile products followed ceiling adjustments by OPA. Prices of cotton underwear increased with revised ceilings to encourage production. Men's business shirts increased fractionally following removal of restrictions on use of materials. Prices for products made from fibers other than cotton were unchanged.

Further advances in mine prices for anthracite and bituminous coal were granted by OPA to restore margins to 1942 levels. Higher prices for kerosene followed ceiling increases allowed for deliveries in eastern States to encourage production. Competitive price reductions for gasoline continued to be reported from the mid-continent area.

The advance in the group index for metals and metal products resulted largely from higher ceilings for gray-iron castings allowed by OPA in previous months. Higher prices also were reported for cast-iron pressure pipe and mercury. Additional small increases in prices of farm machinery continued to be made under ceiling adjustments allowed to individual producers.

The sharp advance in building-material prices resulted largely from ceiling increases granted by OPA to encourage production of materials needed for home construction. Southern pine lumber ceilings were increased by $2–$5 per thousand board feet, following a cost study of the industry, and ceilings for some northern hardwoods were advanced about 1 percent. Quotations for window glass advanced about 4 percent with higher ceilings, the first increase in quoted prices since before the war. Prices for cement, plaster, plasterboard, and clay sewer pipe also were higher under adjusted ceilings. Mill realizations for western pine lumber generally were lower. Turpentine quotations continued to advance with increased demand for paint materials, as OPA officials announced their intention of placing ceilings on gum turpentine.

Ceiling revisions in November to compensate for declining output raised average December prices for ethyl alcohol. Quotations for glycerin also advanced to ceiling levels with continued demand and short supplies. Prices of ergot moved up sharply as expected supplies failed to arrive.

Index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities are shown for selected years in table 2. A review of price developments during 1945 will be published in the March 1946 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. A condensed statement was issued in mimeographed form January 6, 1946, and is available upon request.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities December 1945, Compared with Previous Months*

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent of change to December 1945 from—		
	Dec. 1945	Nov. 1945	Dec. 1944	Aug. 1939	Nov. 1945	Dec. 1944	Aug. 1939
All commodities	107.1	106.8	104.7	75.0	+0.3	+2.3	+42.8
Farm products	131.5	131.1	125.5	61.0	+.3	+4.8	+115.6
Grains	133.2	132.9	127.5	51.5	+.2	+4.5	+158.6
Livestock and poultry	129.6	131.8	126.9	66.0	−1.7	+2.1	+96.4
Other farm products	131.3	129.3	123.2	60.1	+1.5	+6.6	+118.5
Foods	108.6	107.9	105.5	67.2	+.6	+2.9	+61.6
Dairy products	113.8	113.2	110.7	67.9	+.5	+2.8	+67.6
Cereal products	95.7	95.5	94.7	71.9	+.2	+1.1	+33.1
Fruits and vegetables	128.7	123.8	116.2	58.5	+4.0	+10.8	+120.0
Meats	107.9	107.9	106.2	73.7	0	+1.6	+46.4
Other foods	100.6	100.7	99.7	60.3	−.1	+.9	+66.8
Hides and leather products	118.9	118.8	117.4	92.7	+.1	+1.3	+28.3
Shoes	126.9	126.7	126.3	100.8	+.2	+.5	+25.9
Hides and skins	117.6	117.6	114.0	77.2	0	+3.2	+52.3
Leather	104.1	103.8	101.3	84.0	+.3	+2.8	+23.9
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	115.2	97.1	0	0	+18.6
Textile products	101.4	101.1	99.5	67.8	+.3	+1.9	+49.6
Clothing	107.4	107.4	107.4	81.5	0	0	+31.8
Cotton goods	125.5	125.1	119.2	65.5	+.3	+5.3	+91.6
Hosiery and underwear	73.5	71.5	71.5	61.5	+2.8	+2.8	+19.5
Rayon	30.2	30.2	30.2	28.5	0	0	+6.0
Silk				44.3			
Woolen and worsted	112.7	112.7	112.9	75.5	0	−.2	+49.3
Other textile products	101.9	101.9	100.9	63.7	0	+1.0	+60.0
Fuel and lighting materials	84.8	84.6	83.1	72.6	+.2	+2.0	+16.8
Anthracite	103.4	102.2	95.3	72.1	+1.2	+8.5	+43.4
Bituminous coal	125.0	124.8	120.5	96.0	+.2	+3.7	+30.2
Coke	134.9	134.9	130.7	104.2	0	+3.2	+29.5
Electricity	(1)	(1)	59.9	75.8			
Gas	(1)	79.1	74.6	86.7			
Petroleum and products	61.6	61.7	63.8	51.7	−.2	−3.4	+19.1
Metals and metal products	105.6	105.2	103.8	93.2	+.4	+1.7	+13.3
Agricultural implements	98.1	98.1	97.5	93.5	0	+.6	+4.9
Farm machinery	99.1	99.1	98.7	94.7	0	+.4	+4.6
Iron and steel	101.0	100.2	97.2	95.1	+.8	+3.9	+6.2
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	112.8	92.5	0	0	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.8	85.8	74.6	0	0	+15.0
Plumbing and heating	95.0	95.0	92.4	79.3	0	+2.8	+19.8
Building materials	119.5	118.7	116.4	89.6	+.7	+2.7	+33.4
Brick and tile	116.7	116.7	105.3	90.5	0	+10.8	+29.0
Cement	100.5	100.1	97.5	91.3	+.4	+3.1	+10.1
Lumber	157.8	155.5	154.3	90.1	+1.5	+2.3	+75.1
Paint and paint materials	107.8	107.7	106.3	82.1	+.1	+1.4	+31.3
Plumbing and heating	95.0	95.0	92.4	79.3	0	+2.8	+19.8
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	0	0	0
Other building materials	105.9	105.4	103.3	89.5	+.5	+2.5	+18.3
Chemicals and allied products	96.1	95.7	94.8	74.2	+.4	+1.4	+29.5
Chemicals	97.1	96.7	95.6	83.8	+.4	+1.6	+15.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	112.3	110.7	106.9	77.1	+1.4	+5.1	+45.7
Fertilizer materials	81.9	81.9	81.8	65.5	0	+.1	+25.0
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.6	86.6	73.1	0	0	+18.5
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	102.0	40.6	0	0	+151.2
Housefurnishing goods	104.7	104.7	104.4	85.6	0	+.3	+22.3
Furnishings	107.9	107.9	107.4	90.0	0	+.5	+19.9
Furniture	101.6	101.6	101.5	81.1	0	+.1	+25.3
Miscellaneous	94.8	94.8	94.2	73.3	0	+.6	+29.3
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	73.0	60.5	0	0	+20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	159.6	68.4	0	0	+133.3
Paper and pulp	109.3	109.3	107.3	80.0	0	+1.9	+36.6
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	46.2	34.9	0	0	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	98.9	98.9	98.2	81.3	0	+.7	+21.6
Raw materials	119.2	118.9	114.6	66.5	+.3	+4.0	+79.2
Semimanufactured articles	97.6	96.9	94.8	74.5	+.7	+3.0	+31.0
Manufactured products	102.5	102.2	101.1	79.1	+.3	+1.4	+29.6
All commodities other than farm products	101.6	101.3	100.0	77.9	+.3	+1.6	+30.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods	100.5	100.2	98.9	80.1	+.3	+1.6	+25.5

[1] No quotation.

680315—46——10

TABLE 2.—*Annual Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	1945	1944	1943	1942	1941	1940	1939	1929
All commodities	105.8	104.0	103.1	98.8	87.3	78.6	77.1	95.3
Farm products	128.2	123.3	122.6	105.9	82.4	67.7	65.3	104.9
Grains	129.7	126.9	116.3	92.9	76.9	68.0	58.6	97.4
Livestock and poultry	132.5	124.6	128.7	117.8	91.6	69.2	72.2	106.1
Other farm products	124.3	120.7	119.8	101.6	77.8	66.1	62.6	106.6
Foods	106.2	104.9	106.6	99.6	82.7	71.3	70.4	99.9
Dairy products	111.1	110.5	111.1	100.0	87.3	77.6	69.5	105.6
Cereal products	95.2	94.8	93.7	89.2	80.7	78.3	74.8	88.0
Fruits and vegetables	122.8	121.3	121.3	95.5	67.5	63.1	62.0	97.8
Meats	107.8	106.1	110.3	111.8	90.4	73.3	77.2	109.1
Other foods	96.6	95.0	97.3	92.3	78.9	63.5	64.1	93.9
Hides and leather products	118.1	116.7	117.5	117.7	108.3	100.8	95.6	109.1
Shoes	126.4	126.3	126.4	125.7	113.5	107.6	102.6	106.3
Hides and skins	117.0	109.9	114.7	117.6	108.4	91.9	84.6	112.7
Leather	102.2	101.3	101.3	101.3	97.9	92.5	87.5	113.2
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	115.2	114.9	104.7	99.9	97.1	106.4
Textile products	100.1	98.4	97.4	96.9	84.8	73.8	69.7	90.4
Clothing	107.4	107.1	107.0	106.9	92.6	85.2	82.0	90.0
Cotton goods	121.4	115.7	112.7	112.4	94.2	71.4	67.2	98.8
Hosiery and underwear	71.7	70.9	70.8	70.5	63.1	62.3	61.4	88.5
Silk	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	46.8	46.1	82.7
Rayon	30.2	30.2	30.3	30.3	29.7	29.5	28.8	68.4
Woolen and worsted goods	112.7	112.7	112.5	110.4	96.6	85.7	79.8	88.3
Other textile products	101.1	100.6	98.8	97.9	90.7	74.5	69.2	93.1
Fuel and lighting materials	84.0	83.0	80.8	78.5	76.2	71.7	73.1	83.0
Anthracite	99.0	95.6	90.4	85.5	82.7	78.9	75.8	90.1
Bituminous coal	123.1	120.3	116.1	109.7	104.3	97.6	97.5	91.3
Coke	132.5	130.3	122.7	122.1	119.3	110.2	105.6	84.6
Electricity	[1]	59.6	59.5	63.8	68.3	74.5	78.6	94.5
Gas	[1]	77.2	76.5	78.4	78.6	82.0	84.1	93.1
Petroleum products	63.5	63.9	62.5	59.8	57.0	50.0	52.2	71.3
Metals and metal products	104.7	103.8	103.8	103.8	99.4	95.8	94.4	100.5
Agricultural implements	97.8	97.3	96.9	96.9	93.5	92.5	93.4	98.7
Farm machinery	98.8	98.4	98.0	98.0	94.5	93.7	94.6	98.0
Iron and steel	99.2	97.2	97.2	97.2	96.4	95.1	95.8	94.9
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	112.8	112.7	103.3	96.7	93.4	100.0
Nonferrous metals	85.8	85.8	86.0	85.7	84.4	81.3	78.0	106.1
Plumbing and heating	93.4	92.2	90.7	95.4	84.8	80.4	79.2	95.0
Building materials	117.8	115.5	111.4	110.2	103.2	94.8	90.5	95.4
Brick and tile	112.4	101.7	99.1	98.0	93.7	90.5	91.4	94.3
Cement	99.4	95.8	93.8	94.0	92.0	90.8	91.3	89.0
Lumber	155.1	[2]153.3	[2]141.4	133.0	122.5	102.9	93.2	93.8
Paint and paint materials	106.9	105.2	102.3	100.3	91.4	85.7	82.8	94.9
Plumbing and heating	93.4	92.2	90.7	95.4	84.8	80.4	79.2	95.0
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	98.1
Other building materials	104.4	103.1	102.0	103.5	98.3	93.3	90.3	97.7
Chemicals and allied products	95.2	[2]95.2	[2]94.9	[2]95.5	[2]84.4	77.0	76.0	94.0
Chemicals	96.1	96.1	96.5	96.2	87.2	85.1	84.7	99.7
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	109.0	[2]108.8	[2]106.2	[2]116.0	[2]102.6	88.9	78.2	66.8
Fertilizer materials	81.6	81.3	80.0	78.7	73.5	69.4	67.9	95.6
Mixed fertilizers	86.6	86.4	86.1	82.7	76.0	73.8	73.0	95.2
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	101.9	105.1	77.6	44.3	48.4	89.0
Housefurnishing goods	104.5	104.3	102.7	102.4	94.3	88.5	86.3	94.3
Furnishings	107.6	107.3	107.2	107.3	99.9	94.7	91.1	93.6
Furniture	101.5	101.4	98.1	97.4	88.4	81.8	81.3	95.0
Miscellaneous	94.7	93.6	92.2	89.7	82.0	77.3	74.8	82.6
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	73.0	72.5	61.0	57.8	59.5	54.5
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	152.7	134.4	101.2	87.8	83.3	121.6
Paper and pulp	108.8	107.1	104.1	100.8	98.2	91.7	82.4	88.9
Crude rubber	46.2	46.2	46.2	46.3	46.1	41.5	37.2	42.3
Other miscellaneous	98.9	97.0	95.8	93.4	87.8	84.1	82.6	98.4
Raw materials	116.8	113.2	112.1	100.6	83.5	71.9	70.2	97.5
Semimanufactured articles	95.9	94.1	92.9	92.6	86.9	79.1	77.0	93.9
Manufactured products	101.8	100.8	100.1	98.6	89.1	81.6	80.4	94.5
All commodities other than farm products	100.8	99.6	98.7	97.0	88.3	80.8	79.5	93.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	99.7	98.5	96.9	95.5	89.0	83.0	81.3	91.6

[1] Data not available.
[2] Revised.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to December 1945

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1945, and by months from December 1944 to December 1945, are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.4	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	95.5	102.4	89.7	98.8
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	94.9	102.7	92.2	103.1
1944	123.3	104.9	116.7	98.4	83.0	103.8	115.5	95.2	104.3	93.6	104.0
1945	128.2	106.2	118.1	100.1	84.0	104.7	117.8	95.2	104.5	94.7	105.8
1944											
December	125.5	105.5	117.4	99.5	83.1	103.8	116.4	94.8	104.4	94.2	104.7
1945											
January	126.2	104.7	117.5	99.6	83.3	104.0	116.8	94.9	104.5	94.2	104.9
February	127.0	104.7	117.6	99.7	83.3	104.2	117.0	94.9	104.5	94.6	105.2
March	127.2	104.6	117.8	99.7	83.4	104.2	117.1	94.9	104.5	94.6	105.3
April	129.0	105.8	117.9	99.6	83.5	104.2	117.1	94.9	104.5	94.8	105.7
May	129.9	107.0	117.9	99.6	83.7	104.3	117.3	94.9	104.5	94.8	106.0
June	130.4	107.5	118.0	99.6	83.9	104.7	117.4	95.0	104.5	94.8	106.1
July	129.0	106.9	118.0	99.6	84.3	104.7	117.5	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.9
August	126.9	106.4	118.0	99.6	84.8	104.7	117.8	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.7
September	124.3	104.9	118.7	100.1	84.1	104.9	118.0	95.3	104.6	94.8	105.2
October	127.3	105.7	118.6	101.0	84.2	105.0	118.3	95.5	104.7	94.8	105.9
November	131.1	107.9	118.8	101.1	84.6	105.2	118.7	95.7	104.7	94.8	106.8
December	131.5	108.6	118.9	101.4	84.8	105.6	119.5	96.1	104.7	94.8	107.1

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 4 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 and 11 of Wholesale Prices, July–December and Year 1943, Bulletin No. 785.

TABLE 4.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*1944*					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	December	114.6	94.8	101.1	100.0	98.9
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	*1945*					
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	January	115.1	94.9	101.3	100.1	99.1
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	February	115.6	95.0	101.5	100.2	99.2
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	March	115.7	95.0	101.6	100.4	99.2
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	April	116.8	95.0	101.8	100.5	99.3
						May	117.7	95.0	101.8	100.6	99.4
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	June	118.2	95.4	101.8	100.7	99.6
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	July	117.5	95.3	101.8	100.7	99.7
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	August	116.3	95.5	101.8	100.9	99.9
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	September	114.8	96.5	101.7	100.9	99.8
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	October	116.6	96.8	101.9	101.9	100.1
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5	November	118.9	96.9	102.2	101.3	100.2
1945	116.8	95.9	101.8	100.8	99.7	December	119.2	97.6	102.5	101.6	100.5

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during November and December 1945 are shown by the index numbers in table 5. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 5.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, November and December 1945*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Dec. 29	Dec. 22	Dec. 15	Dec. 8	Dec. 1	Nov. 24	Nov. 17	Nov. 10	Nov. 3
All commodities	107.0	106.8	106.7	106.5	106.8	106.7	106.3	106.1	105.9
Farm products	132.7	131.5	131.3	130.3	132.0	132.1	130.3	129.5	129.1
Foods	109.5	108.6	108.3	108.1	108.5	108.7	107.2	107.0	106.6
Hides and leather products	119.4	119.4	119.4	119.4	119.4	119.1	119.1	119.1	119.1
Textile products	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.5	100.5	100.5	100.0
Fuel and lighting materials	85.3	85.2	85.2	85.2	85.1	84.6	84.6	84.5	84.5
Metals and metal products	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.2
Building materials	118.9	118.8	118.8	118.7	118.7	118.7	118.6	118.6	118.2
Chemicals and allied products	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	95.6	95.6	95.5	95.5
Housefurnishing goods	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4	106.4
Miscellaneous	95.0	95.0	95.0	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	94.6
Raw materials	120.6	119.8	119.7	119.1	120.1	120.2	119.1	118.6	118.2
Semimanufactured articles	96.9	96.9	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.7
Manufactured products	102.6	102.6	102.6	102.5	102.5	102.3	102.2	102.2	101.9
All commodities other than farm products	101.4	101.3	101.3	101.3	101.2	101.1	101.1	101.0	100.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	100.6	100.5	100.5	100.5	100.4	100.3	100.3	100.2	100.1

Labor Turn-over

Labor Turn-over in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, November 1945

FACTORY workers were separated from their jobs at the rate of 71 per 1,000 in November 1945 as compared with 86 in the preceding month, reflecting substantial declines in both the quit and lay-off rates. The hiring rate remained at approximately the same high level as in October and more than offset total separations—indicating an actual increase in manufacturing employment.

Increased accession rates were reported in 6 of the 20 major industry groups, but hirings were greater than separations in all but the ordnance, transportation equipment, and tobacco groups.

Although lay-offs in all manufacturing dropped from 23 in October to 18 per 1,000 in November, four of the major groups showed marked increases in this rate. Among the heavy industries, the ordnance group laid off more workers as a result of continued production cuts, while workers in the lumber group were laid off because of unseasonable weather in the West.

Increased lay-off rates in the light industries were reported by the tobacco and paper groups. In tobacco, the lay-off rate doubled to a high of 28 per 1,000, which reflects the existing huge cigarette surplus. Increased civilian consumption of tobacco was insufficient to offset the reduction in military needs. A material shortage resulting from industrial disputes accounted for a higher lay-off rate in the paper group.

In contrast to manufacturing industries, both the quit and lay-off rates for anthracite and bituminous-coal mining rose slightly during the month. The lay-off rate for metal mining was almost doubled, chiefly as a result of curtailed operations in iron-ore mines during winter months.

Women were separated from their jobs at the rate of 79 per 1,000 in November 1945 as compared with 67 for men. However, contrary to the pattern in the preceding 7 months, involuntary separations—lay-offs and discharges—for women were below those for men. The hiring rate for men was considerably higher than the separation rate, while the reverse was true in the case of women.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation:												
1945	6.2	6.0	6.8	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	17.9	12.0	8.6	[2]7.1	----
1944	6.7	6.6	7.4	6.8	7.1	7.1	6.6	7.8	7.6	6.4	6.0	5.7
1943	7.1	7.1	7.7	7.5	6.7	7.1	7.6	8.3	8.1	7.0	6.4	6.6
1939	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
Quit:												
1945	4.6	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	6.7	5.6	[2]4.6	----
1944	4.6	4.6	5.0	4.9	5.3	5.4	5.0	6.2	6.1	5.0	4.6	4.3
1943	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.4	4.8	5.2	5.6	6.3	6.3	5.2	4.5	4.4
1939	.9	.6	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.1	.9	.8	.7
Discharge:												
1945	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.7	.6	.7	.6	.5	[2].5	----
1944	.7	.6	.7	.6	.6	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1943	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1939	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: [3]												
1945	.6	.7	.7	.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	10.7	4.5	2.3	[2]1.8	----
1944	.8	.8	.9	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5
1943	.7	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.7	1.0
1939	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.7
Military and miscellaneous: [4]												
1945	.3	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.2	.2	[2].2	----
1944	.6	.6	.8	.7	.7	.5	.4	.4	.3	.3	.3	.3
1943	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1945	7.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	7.4	8.6	[2]8.5	----
1944	6.5	5.5	5.8	5.5	6.4	7.6	6.3	6.3	6.1	6.0	6.1	5.1
1943	8.3	7.9	8.3	7.4	7.2	8.4	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.2	6.6	5.2
1939	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8

[1] Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor turn-over rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a 1-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turn-over data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. The turn-over sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing, and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

[4] Miscellaneous separations comprise not more than 0.1 in these figures. In 1939 these data were included with quits.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *November 1945* [2]

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945
Manufacturing												
Durable [3]	7.6	9.3	4.3	5.3	0.5	0.6	2.6	3.2	0.2	0.2	8.2	8.5
Nondurable [3]	6.5	7.9	5.0	6.0	.4	.5	.9	1.2	.2	.2	8.8	8.7
Ordnance	26.1	25.1	4.2	5.8	.3	.9	21.5	18.3	.1	.1	6.3	8.5
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment [4]	17.6	18.9	10.5	11.9	.1	.5	6.8	6.3	.2	.2	6.9	13.1
Ammunition, except for small arms	31.2	27.4	3.2	4.5	.3	1.1	27.6	21.7	.1	.1	6.4	7.1
Tanks [5]	(5)	25.4	(5)	2.4	(5)	.5	(5)	22.4	(5)	.1	(5)	8.8
Sighting and fire-control equipment	8.6	24.1	1.6	3.0	.3	.4	6.7	20.7	(5)	(5)	4.4	6.1
Iron and steel and their products	5.6	6.2	4.0	4.6	.5	.4	.9	1.0	.2	.2	8.3	7.8
Blast furnaces, steel work, and rolling mills [4]	4.7	5.1	3.7	4.1	.3	.2	.4	.6	.3	.2	7.4	6.2
Gray-iron castings	7.4	7.6	5.9	6.0	1.0	1.0	.4	.4	.1	.2	10.2	12.3
Malleable-iron castings	6.6	7.1	5.1	6.2	.5	.4	.6	.1	.4	.4	10.5	9.9
Steel castings	7.5	9.4	3.7	5.8	.7	.7	2.9	2.7	.2	.2	6.2	5.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings [4]	3.5	7.2	2.7	5.4	.4	.4	.3	.8	.1	.6	7.2	9.5
Tin cans and other tinware	11.9	15.1	7.3	9.6	2.9	1.9	1.4	3.2	.3	.4	13.4	14.9
Wire products	4.1	5.2	2.9	3.6	.2	.2	.7	1.1	.3	.3	6.3	7.3
Cutlery and edge tools	5.7	7.2	4.6	5.5	1.0	.9	(6)	.7	.1	.1	9.0	11.2
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.6	5.8	4.2	4.3	.7	.7	.6	.6	.1	.2	8.1	7.7
Hardware	5.9	6.6	4.5	5.4	.6	.5	.6	.5	.2	.2	9.7	10.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	5.9	8.3	4.6	6.2	.6	.8	.5	1.0	.2	.3	10.4	14.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	5.8	6.7	4.4	4.8	.3	.4	.9	1.2	.2	.3	8.6	8.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	6.5	8.4	4.9	5.8	.7	.7	.7	1.6	.2	.3	12.6	13.6
Fabricated structural-metal products	6.3	9.3	4.2	5.3	.5	.7	1.4	3.0	.2	.3	9.0	9.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	4.5	5.3	2.6	3.2	.6	.5	1.0	1.3	.3	.3	6.5	6.3
Forgings, iron and steel	5.1	5.2	2.7	3.4	.4	.3	1.9	1.3	.1	.2	6.4	7.0
Firearms (60-caliber and under)	5.7	8.8	2.7	3.5	.5	.4	2.2	4.7	.3	.2	9.7	10.4
Electrical machinery	5.5	7.3	3.5	4.1	.4	.4	1.3	2.5	.3	.3	6.9	6.8
Electrical equipment for industrial use	4.5	8.5	3.0	4.4	.2	.3	1.0	3.3	.3	.5	4.9	4.4
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs [4]	6.3	5.7	3.8	3.3	.8	.4	1.5	1.9	.2	.1	8.6	7.4
Communication equipment, except radios	6.5	8.1	3.5	3.8	.5	.6	2.3	3.5	.2	.2	7.2	6.5
Machinery, except electrical	4.8	5.7	3.1	3.8	.4	.5	1.1	1.2	.2	.2	7.0	6.9
Engines and turbines	7.6	8.0	3.4	4.4	.5	.6	3.5	2.7	.2	.3	5.8	5.9
Agricultural machinery and tractors [4]	4.5	4.6	3.6	3.7	.2	.3	.4	.3	.3	.3	7.6	6.8
Machine tools	4.3	4.6	2.2	2.8	.4	.3	1.6	1.4	.1	.1	4.2	4.2
Machine-tool accessories	5.2	8.6	2.6	3.5	.5	.5	1.9	4.4	.2	.2	5.9	4.9
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	4.7	5.0	2.8	3.8	.7	.6	1.0	.4	.2	.2	6.6	6.4
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.2	5.9	3.3	4.0	.5	.6	1.2	1.1	.2	.2	6.9	6.9
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.2	5.0	2.9	3.3	.5	.5	.5	1.0	.3	.2	9.8	8.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	15.0	19.2	5.0	7.2	.9	1.1	8.9	10.7	.2	.2	7.2	8.2
Aircraft	9.8	14.7	3.7	5.3	.4	.8	5.5	8.4	.2	.2	7.0	6.5
Aircraft parts, including engines [7]	8.6	13.8	3.7	4.3	.4	.4	4.4	8.9	.1	.2	9.4	12.0
Shipbuilding and repairs	21.1	24.0	6.3	8.9	1.4	1.5	13.2	13.4	.2	.2	6.7	8.1
Automobiles	4.2	5.9	2.7	3.1	.3	.3	1.1	2.4	.1	.1	10.6	11.8
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	3.5	4.7	2.1	2.3	.2	.2	1.1	2.1	.1	.1	9.9	8.4
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories [4]	6.5	7.7	4.7	4.3	.6	.5	1.1	2.8	.1	.1	12.5	16.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *November 1945* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945
Manufacturing—Continued												
Nonferrous metals and their products [4]	5.8	8.0	4.3	5.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.6	0.2	0.3	8.7	10.1
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.8	5.1	3.8	4.5	.3	.2	.4	.3	.3	.1	6.4	6.9
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	4.6	5.8	3.9	4.4	.3	.4	.3	.7	.1	.3	7.2	7.2
Aluminum and magnesium products	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Lighting equipment	(5)	8.8	(5)	7.3	(5)	.5	(5)	.8	(5)	.2	(5)	15.0
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	5.9	9.4	4.1	6.3	.4	.9	1.1	1.6	.3	.6	9.2	10.8
Lumber and timber, basic products	9.1	9.9	6.7	8.2	.5	.3	1.8	1.2	.1	.2	10.1	10.4
Sawmills	8.6	9.2	6.7	7.9	.5	.4	1.3	.7	.1	.2	9.7	9.8
Planing and plywood mills	8.6	9.2	5.1	6.2	.7	.3	2.7	2.5	.1	.2	9.5	9.5
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.7	9.2	7.2	7.6	.7	.6	.6	.8	.2	.2	12.1	12.3
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	9.1	9.0	7.3	7.8	.9	.7	.7	.4	.2	.1	12.5	12.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	6.1	6.4	4.7	4.9	.4	.5	.7	.7	.3	.3	8.5	8.8
Glass and glass products [4]	5.4	5.6	4.4	4.1	.6	.6	.1	.5	.3	.4	8.7	8.1
Cement	6.7	5.8	5.4	4.9	.5	.4	.6	.3	.2	.2	10.2	9.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta [4]	7.6	9.1	6.7	8.1	.3	.4	.3	.3	.3	.3	11.6	13.4
Pottery and related products	6.3	7.4	5.7	6.2	.4	.5	(6)	.4	.2	.3	9.2	9.9
Textile-mill products	6.1	6.7	5.1	5.7	.4	.4	.4	.4	.2	.2	8.1	8.1
Cotton	6.6	7.5	5.8	6.7	.4	.4	.2	.2	.2	.2	8.7	8.8
Silk and rayon goods	7.8	7.6	6.0	6.3	.8	.5	.8	.6	.2	.2	9.1	9.0
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	4.5	5.4	3.5	4.4	.3	.3	.5	.5	.2	.2	6.9	6.9
Hosiery, full-fashioned	5.7	4.0	3.6	3.2	.3	.3	1.8	.4	(6)	.1	6.8	6.2
Hosiery, seamless	5.6	6.4	5.0	5.5	.2	.2	.4	.6	(6)	.1	7.9	8.0
Knitted underwear	5.8	6.4	5.3	5.6	.3	.4	.1	.3	.1	.1	6.9	7.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	4.6	4.7	3.3	3.6	.4	.3	.8	.6	.1	.2	7.2	5.9
Apparel and other finished textile products	6.2	7.7	5.6	6.3	.2	.3	.3	1.1	.1	(6)	7.5	8.6
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.9	5.6	4.4	4.7	.1	.1	.3	.7	.1	.1	5.8	5.5
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	6.4	8.6	6.0	6.8	.2	.4	.2	1.5	(6)	(6)	7.2	9.5
Leather and leather products	5.2	6.5	4.5	5.3	.2	.4	.3	.6	.2	.2	6.9	7.8
Leather	4.5	5.2	3.5	3.9	.3	.2	.5	.9	.2	.2	6.5	6.4
Boots and shoes	5.3	6.7	4.7	5.6	.2	.4	.2	.5	.2	.2	7.0	8.1
Food and kindred products	8.6	10.5	6.5	8.2	.7	.7	1.2	1.3	.2	.3	13.4	10.8
Meat products	7.4	11.0	6.3	8.4	.6	.8	.4	1.4	.1	.4	16.3	11.5
Grain-mill products	9.7	11.7	7.8	9.5	1.0	1.1	.7	.8	.2	.3	10.6	12.9
Tobacco manufactures	8.5	8.2	5.1	6.2	.5	.5	2.8	1.4	.1	.1	5.5	9.3
Paper and allied products	6.9	8.3	5.3	6.8	.7	.8	.7	.4	.2	.3	9.7	10.4
Paper and pulp	5.9	7.5	4.5	6.0	.6	.8	.6	.4	.2	.3	9.3	9.5
Paper boxes	10.1	10.2	8.1	9.0	.8	.8	1.0	.2	.2	.2	11.9	12.9
Chemicals and allied products	5.8	7.4	2.9	3.8	.4	.5	2.3	2.9	.2	.2	6.5	6.3
Paints, varnishes, and colors	3.4	4.8	2.6	3.7	.4	.7	.2	.2	.2	.2	7.8	8.9
Rayon and allied products	5.2	5.2	4.2	4.4	.4	.4	.4	.2	.2	.2	7.4	7.3
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.1	5.4	2.5	3.7	.5	.6	.9	.9	.2	.2	6.2	6.6
Explosives	22.1	22.6	1.8	3.6	.1	.2	19.8	18.5	.4	.3	4.2	3.1
Small-arms ammunition	8.4	12.7	3.1	3.9	.6	.3	4.6	8.3	.1	.2	5.5	5.4
Products of petroleum and coal	2.8	3.5	1.9	2.4	.2	.3	.5	.6	.2	.2	5.5	5.7
Petroleum refining	2.8	3.5	1.7	2.4	.2	.3	.7	.6	.2	.2	5.0	5.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *November 1945* [2]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945
Rubber products	6.7	7.2	5.7	5.8	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.3	9.6	10.0
Rubber tires and inner tubes	6.9	7.2	6.3	5.9	.3	.4	.1	.6	.2	.3	9.3	10.3
Rubber footwear and related products	6.4	7.9	5.8	7.1	.3	.4	.1	.2	.2	.2	9.1	9.2
Miscellaneous rubber industries	6.5	6.9	4.7	5.2	.5	.6	.7	.8	.6	.3	10.1	9.7
Miscellaneous industries [4]	4.8	6.5	3.5	3.7	.6	.4	.5	2.2	.2	.2	8.0	6.8
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining [4]	6.1	6.3	4.1	4.9	.4	.4	1.3	.7	.3	.3	7.6	6.7
Iron ore	4.8	3.7	1.8	2.2	.1	.1	2.4	1.0	.5	.4	3.7	3.3
Copper ore	6.5	7.7	4.4	6.5	.8	.7	1.1	.2	.2	.3	8.7	8.0
Lead and zinc ore	6.3	6.8	5.8	6.0	.2	.3	.1	.2	.2	.3	10.1	8.8
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum ore	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Coal mining:												
Anthracite mining	2.2	1.9	1.6	1.4	.1	.1	.4	.3	.1	.1	2.6	2.7
Bituminous-coal mining	4.8	4.5	4.2	4.0	.2	.2	.3	.1	.1	.2	6.4	5.0
Public utilities:												
Telephone	(5)	3.7	(5)	3.3	(5)	.2	(5)	.1	(5)	.1	(5)	6.2
Telegraph	(5)	4.4	(5)	4.1	(5)	.1	(5)	.1	(5)	.1	(5)	6.1

[1] Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turn-over have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-roll sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major products.

[3] Preliminary.

[3] With the ending of the war, the Bureau has substituted "durable and nondurable goods" for "munitions and nonmunitions." The durable-goods group includes all the heavy industries and differs from "munitions" by the exclusion of such war industry groups as chemicals, petroleum, and rubber, and by the inclusion of lumber, furniture, and stone, clay, and glass. Data for munitions and nonmunitions are as follows:

Industry group	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945
Munitions	7.3	9.0	3.8	4.7	0.5	0.6	2.8	3.5	0.2	0.2	7.7	7.8
Nonmunitions	7.0	8.2	5.5	6.5	.5	.5	.8	1.0	.2	.2	9.5	9.4

[4] Current month based on incomplete returns. The nonferrous group based on incomplete returns for both October and November.

[5] Not available.

[6] Less than 0.05.

[7] Revised September data for aircraft parts, including engines, are as follows: Total separation, 25.3; quit, 4.4; discharge, 0.4; lay-off, 20.3; military and miscellaneous, 0.2; and total accession, 8.9.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) for Men and Women in All Manufacturing and Selected Groups,*[1] *November 1945* [2]

Industry group	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945
All manufacturing	6.7	8.1	7.9	9.7	4.2	5.2	5.6	6.5	9.0	8.6	7.4	8.2
Durable [3]	7.3	8.7	9.5	11.7	4.1	5.1	5.2	5.9	8.6	8.5	6.6	7.8
Nondurable [3]	5.9	7.1	7.2	8.7	4.3	5.4	5.8	6.7	9.5	8.9	7.8	8.4
Ordnance	24.6	22.6	32.7	30.0	4.2	5.7	4.0	6.3	6.9	8.5	3.5	9.1
Iron and steel and their products	5.2	6.0	7.5	8.5	3.8	4.5	5.0	5.8	8.6	8.0	6.3	7.6
Electrical machinery	4.3	5.9	7.3	9.4	2.8	3.6	4.7	4.8	6.6	6.0	7.6	8.2
Machinery, except electrical	4.5	5.3	6.5	7.6	2.9	3.6	4.1	4.7	7.4	7.2	4.4	5.6
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	14.8	18.4	15.7	19.8	4.9	6.8	5.4	6.7	7.6	8.3	5.4	5.9
Automobiles	3.9	4.7	7.0	9.3	2.5	3.0	4.4	5.1	10.3	10.1	12.5	10.5
Nonferrous metals and their products [4]	5.6	7.4	6.2	9.7	4.2	5.4	4.5	5.6	9.2	9.8	7.3	10.9
Lumber and timber basic products	8.7	9.6	14.8	13.4	6.7	8.1	7.2	8.2	10.5	10.6	5.1	7.6
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.2	8.2	10.5	11.8	6.8	7.0	8.4	9.7	12.7	12.3	9.7	12.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.8	5.8	7.0	8.0	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.6	9.5	9.1	5.2	7.8
Textile-mill products	5.8	6.5	6.2	6.7	4.7	5.4	5.4	5.9	9.1	8.3	6.9	7.7
Apparel and other finished textile products	4.0	4.9	6.2	8.2	3.0	3.9	5.8	6.7	6.3	5.6	7.3	8.9
Leather and leather products	4.3	5.2	6.4	7.9	3.6	4.1	5.6	6.7	6.9	7.0	6.9	8.9
Food and kindred products	7.7	9.6	11.4	12.4	6.0	7.6	8.2	9.3	13.2	10.8	14.0	10.4
Tobacco manufactures	7.6	8.2	9.2	8.3	4.0	6.9	5.8	5.9	6.8	10.4	4.9	8.5
Paper and allied products	6.3	7.7	8.2	9.7	4.9	6.3	6.2	7.9	10.7	10.8	5.7	8.6
Chemicals and allied products	5.4	6.6	7.4	9.4	2.5	3.5	4.3	4.8	7.1	7.0	4.4	4.3
Products of petroleum and coal	2.6	3.0	6.3	8.6	1.7	2.1	4.4	5.5	6.0	6.1	1.5	1.9
Rubber products	6.9	6.9	6.3	7.7	5.8	5.6	5.2	6.3	10.6	11.0	7.0	7.6
Miscellaneous industries [4]	4.1	5.2	5.6	8.5	2.8	3.0	4.4	4.8	8.6	6.9	7.2	6.6

[1] These figures are based on a slightly smaller sample than that for all employees, inasmuch as some firms do not report separate data for women.

[2] Preliminary figures.

[3] With the ending of the war, the Bureau has substituted "durable and nondurable goods" for "munitions and nonmunitions." The durable-goods group includes all the heavy industries and differs from "munitions" by the exclusion of such war industry groups as chemicals, petroleum, and rubber, and by the inclusion of lumber, furniture, and stone, clay, and glass. Data for munitions and nonmunitions are as follows:

Industry group	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945
Munitions	6.9	8.4	9.0	11.4	3.5	4.5	4.8	5.5	8.0	7.9	6.2	7.0
Nonmunitions	6.6	7.7	7.4	8.9	5.1	6.2	6.0	6.9	10.4	9.7	7.9	8.7

[4] Current month based on incomplete returns. The nonferrous group based on incomplete returns for both October and November.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, December and Year 1945

URBAN building construction started in 1945 reached its peak in the last month of the year. Contraseasonal gains in December brought total valuations for the month up to approximately 287 million dollars—8 percent above the amount reported in October, the previous high month in 1945; 10 percent above the November figure; and almost 4 times the amount reported in December 1944. The entire increase for the month occurred in nonfederally financed work, which rose from 256 million dollars in November to 286 million dollars in December; Federal activity, on the other hand, came to a virtual standstill.

Both new residential construction and new nonresidential building showed gains over November—6 and 23 percent, respectively. However, there was a 9 percent drop in additions, alterations, and repairs.

All classes of construction shared in the 213-million-dollar gain over the year, with new residential construction rising from 22 million to 102 million dollars, new nonresidential building from 29 million to 135 million dollars, and additions, alterations, and repairs from 24 million to 50 million dollars.

TABLE 1.—*Value of Building Construction Started in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, December 1945* [1]

Class of construction	Value (in millions)								
	Total			Non-Federal			Federal		
	December 1945	Percent of change from—		December 1945	Percent of change from—		December 1945	Percent of change from—	
		November 1945	December 1944		November 1945	December 1944		November 1945	December 1944
All construction	$287	+9.9	+285.9	$286	+12.2	+497.7	$1	−90.7	−98.0
New residential	102	+5.5	+363.6	102	+5.5	+626.3	0	0	−100.0
New nonresidential	135	+23.2	+373.7	135	+27.6	+839.2	(2)	−99.5	−99.9
Additions, alterations, and repairs	50	−9.1	+109.0	49	−6.7	+152.7	1	−73.9	−88.1

[1] Percentage changes computed before rounding.
[2] Value less than $500,000.

The total of 19,493 new family dwelling units started in December was slightly below the 20,417 put under construction in November and was more than double the December 1944 figure. For the fourth

consecutive month in 1945, none of the units was to be financed from Federal funds. In December 1944, however, 3,112 of the 8,078 units started were federally financed.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Value of New Dwelling Units Started in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, December 1945*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Value (in thousands)		
	December 1945	Percent of change from—		December 1945	Percent of change from—	
		November 1945	December 1944		November 1945	December 1944
All dwellings	19,493	−4.5	+141.3	$96,270	+2.5	+342.3
Privately financed	19,493	−4.5	+292.5	96,270	+2.5	+596.8
1-family	15,698	−9.9	+297.4	82,254	−.8	+628.6
2-family [1]	1,358	+27.0	+139.1	4,700	+13.7	+237.9
Multifamily [2]	2,437	+26.5	+444.0	9,316	+35.5	+720.8
Federally financed	0	0	−100.0	0	0	−100.0

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of 1945 and 1944

Urban building almost doubled between 1944 and 1945. The surge in private construction which started with the end of hostilities continued throughout the remainder of 1945, causing the cumulative value for the calendar year to reach 2 billion dollars, as compared with 1.1 billion in 1944. Non-Federal (private and State and local government) work rose from 753 million dollars in 1944 to 1,767 million dollars in 1945, whereas Federal building declined from 346 million to 242 million dollars.

Both federally and nonfederally financed additions, alterations, and repairs increased substantially during 1945, 32 and 63 percent, respectively. Private new residential construction advanced from 289 million dollars in 1944 to 642 million in 1945; and new nonresidential building financed with non-Federal funds more than tripled, rising from 169 million to 644 million dollars. On the other hand, Federal contracts for new residential construction dropped from 56 million to 30 million dollars and for new nonresidential building from 268 million to 183 million dollars.

TABLE 3.—*Value of Building Construction Started in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds 1944 and 1945*

Class of construction	Value (in millions)								
	Total			Federal			Other than Federal		
	1945	1944	Percent of change	1945	1944	Percent of change	1945	1944	Percent of change
All construction	$2,009	$1,099	+82.8	$242	$346	−30.1	$1,767	$753	+134.7
New residential	672	345	+94.8	30	56	−46.4	642	289	+122.1
New nonresidential	827	437	+89.2	183	268	−31.7	644	169	+281.1
Additions, alterations, and repairs	510	317	+60.9	29	22	+31.8	481	295	+63.1

TABLE 4.—*Number and Value of New Dwelling Units Started in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and by Type of Dwelling, 1944 and 1945*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Value (in thousands)		
	1945	1944	Percent of change	1945	1944	Percent of change
All dwellings	160,943	114,875	+40.1	$655,615	$341,607	+91.9
Privately financed	150,949	93,173	+62.0	628,458	287,195	+118.8
1-family	125,699	71,278	+76.4	542,230	220,174	+146.3
2-family [1]	9,365	9,908	−5.5	32,153	32,132	+.1
Multifamily [2]	15,885	11,987	+32.5	54,075	34,889	+55.0
Federally financed	9,994	21,702	−53.9	27,157	54,412	−50.1

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction from Federal Funds, December 1945

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during December and November 1945 and December 1944 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes all types of construction, both inside and outside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas of the United States.

The contracts awarded and force-account work started on federally financed building construction inside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas were valued at $533,000 in December 1945, $5,734,000 in November 1945, and $26,460,000 in December 1944.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Federally Financed Construction in Continental United States, by Project, December 1945*

Type of project	Value (in thousands)		
	December 1945 [1]	November 1945 [2]	December 1944 [2]
All types	$30,883	$36,679	$56,824
Airports [3]	53	1,744	3,527
Buildings:			
Residential	2	4	9,421
Nonresidential	8,793	12,525	29,758
Electrification [4]	168	4,456	1,011
Highways, streets, and roads	18,820	7,739	5,254
Reclamation	1,618	2,122	3,725
River, harbor and flood control	288	5,162	399
Water and sewer	786	856	1,923
Miscellaneous	355	2,071	1,806

[1] Preliminary: Subject to revision. Because of delay in receipt of contract notifications the total shown is probably an understatement of from 20 to 30 percent. The revised figure will be shown next month. The greater part will be for nonresidential building. Water and sewer and miscellaneous projects (mostly dual or multipurpose projects that cannot be classified separately) will probably also be changed materially, but to a lesser degree. Little or no change can be expected in the following: Highways, streets, and roads residential building; river, harbor, and flood control; and reclamation.
[2] Revised.
[3] Exclusive of hangars and other buildings which are included under building construction.
[4] Includes the value of loan agreements made for Rural Electrification Administration projects.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States which by Census definition includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning value, are derived from estimates of construction cost made by prospective builders when applying for permits to build and the value of contracts awarded by the Federal Government. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits which were received in December 1945 for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Employment Reports for December 1945

GAINS in employment in trade, transportation, and public utilities, and mining resulted in an increase of 181,000 in the number of nonagricultural employees from mid-November to mid-December. At the same time, unemployment was held at a level of 2,020,000, although the total civilian labor force was expanded through the demobilization of the armed forces, according to the Bureau of the Census.

Industrial and Business Employment

Reconversion brought increases in many manufacturing industries. Among the heavy industries, there were important increases of 36,000 in iron and steel, 13,000 each in stone and machinery (other than electrical), 12,000 in furniture, and 5,000 in nonferrous metals. The increase of 15,000 in lumber reflects partial resumption of operations after the strike which started at the end of September.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers and Indexes of Production-Worker Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group* [1]

Industry group	Estimated number of production workers (thousands)				Production-worker indexes (1939=100)	
	Dec. 1945 [2]	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Dec. 1944	Dec. 1945 [2]	Nov. 1945
All manufacturing	9,924	9,958	9,930	13,379	121.1	121.6
Durable goods	4,832	4,930	4,917	7,932	133.8	136.5
Nondurable goods	5,092	5,028	5,013	5,447	111.2	109.8
Iron and steel and their products	1,241	1,205	1,191	1,677	125.1	121.5
Electrical machinery	461	461	449	714	178.1	177.8
Machinery, except electrical	890	877	876	1,179	168.4	165.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	525	554	643	2,134	330.5	349.2
Automobiles	331	494	440	689	82.4	122.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	315	310	296	402	137.4	135.3
Lumber and timber basic products	422	407	405	468	100.3	96.8
Furniture and finished lumber products	319	307	295	340	97.3	93.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	328	315	322	329	111.7	107.4
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,085	1,042	1,037	1,107	94.9	91.1
Apparel and other finished textile products	798	795	798	866	101.1	100.6
Leather and leather products	323	314	307	316	93.1	90.6
Food	1,031	1,042	1,074	1,065	120.6	121.9
Tobacco manufactures	80	83	86	85	86.2	89.2
Paper and allied products	324	317	312	317	122.2	119.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	355	347	336	328	108.3	105.9
Chemicals and allied products	437	445	442	621	151.5	154.3
Products of petroleum and coal	140	138	129	132	132.4	129.9
Rubber products	186	179	173	198	153.6	148.2
Miscellaneous industries	333	326	319	412	136.1	133.1

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.
[2] Preliminary.

Manufacturing employment declined by 34,000 between November and December, chiefly because of declines in the automobile, other transportation equipment, and electrical machinery groups—owing to the automobile strike. Among the manufacturing industries, the decline of 163,000 production workers in the automobile industry was by far the greatest. There was a net decline of 29,000 in the other transportation-equipment group in spite of an increase in the aircraft industry.

The nondurable-goods group increased employment by 64,000, reflecting gains in 8 of the 11 major groups. The largest gain, 43,000, was in the textile group and more than half of this was concentrated in the cotton-goods industry. Employment in food, chemicals, and tobacco declined. A seasonal decrease in canning was responsible for the decline in the food industry. Further cut-backs in explosives, fireworks, and ammunition accounted for the drop in chemicals, while the decline in the tobacco group was attributed to stock piles of cigarettes.

Public Employment

Although an estimated 250,000 persons were hired by the post offices in 1945 to handle the heavy volume of Christmas mailings, a net drop of 57,000 in other types of Federal employment within continental United States resulted in a net December rise of only 193,000. These changes brought the total within continental United States to 2.7 million.

Employment of the emergency war agencies [1] declined by only 6,000, but that of the War and Navy Departments within continental United States dropped by 51,000 and 9,400, respectively.

Peacetime agencies showed a net gain of 10,000, which was composed of the following shifts: A drop of 6,000 in the Department of Commerce, a 10,000 increase in the RFC, and a 6,000 increase in the Veterans' Administration. The Veterans Administration change is in keeping with a general expansion of its staff inaugurated in the fall of 1943, which increased employment by 39,000 from that time to December 1945. The other two changes reflect the transfer of the Office of Surplus Property from the Department of Commerce to the RFC.

Federal employment in the Washington, D. C., area continued its steady downward decline and stood at 230,000, exclusive of the seasonal post-office employment, as of December 1.

The pay-roll figures in tables 2 and 3 represent the total for all pay periods ending during the month. Since July 1945, when the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1945 became effective, Federal employees whose salaries are on a per annum basis have been paid biweekly instead of semimonthly as before. Consequently, total pay rolls in most months comprise only 4 weeks' pay for these employees. In December 1945, however, 3 biweekly pay periods ended during the month and were therefore included in the monthly total. As a result the December 1945 pay rolls cannot be related directly to the December 1945 employment or compared with pay rolls for earlier months.

[1] In addition to the war agencies created during World War II, this group includes the Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, and the Panama Canal.

Source of data.—Data for the Federal executive service are reported through the Civil Service Commission, whereas data for the legislative and judicial services and Government corporations are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Force-account employment is also included in construction employment (table 5), and navy-yard employment is also included in employment on shipbuilding and repair projects (table 4). The revised pay-roll series showing monthly figures from 1943 to date is available upon request.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls for Regular Federal Services and for Government Corporations, in Selected Months*

Year and month	Total	Executive [1]			Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations [2]
		All areas	Continental United States				
			Total	Washington, D. C., area			
	Employment [3]						
December 1939	1,014,917	981,404	937,391	127,174	5,583	2,359	25,571
December 1940	1,212,931	1,178,221	1,106,162	153,491	5,932	2,391	26,387
December 1941	1,730,850	1,691,833	1,558,071	201,390	6,202	2,582	30,233
December 1942	3,020,077	2,977,033	2,736,555	289,924	6,353	2,617	34,074
December 1943	3,482,925	3,437,764	3,041,577	270,137	6,116	2,655	36,390
December 1944	3,702,940	3,659,220	3,147,367	260,922	6,203	2,646	34,871
September 1945 [4]	3,727,474	3,683,661	2,819,360	251,090	6,445	2,883	34,485
October 1945 [4]	3,495,546	3,451,871	2,581,276	239,992	6,388	2,878	34,409
November 1945 [5]	3,339,394	3,295,470	2,480,671	232,577	6,373	2,942	34,609
December 1945 [5]	3,477,398	3,433,362	2,674,115	233,762	6,368	2,950	34,718
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [6]						
December 1943	$703,279	$695,364	$634,338	$55,241	$1,577	$767	$5,571
December 1944	708,831	700,870	643,641	55,445	1,513	779	5,669
September 1945 [4]	631,095	622,992	554,141	52,953	1,749	865	5,489
October 1945 [4]	593,155	585,011	519,563	51,630	1,749	940	5,455
November 1945 [5]	580,759	573,307	509,257	50,625	1,757	944	4,751
December 1945 [5]	757,577	748,802	690,881	73,960	1,756	1,184	4,835

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards who are also included under shipbuilding (table 4) and employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5). Beginning July 1945, data include approximately 22,000 clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.

[2] Data are for employees of the Panama Railroad Co., the Federal Reserve banks, and banks of the Farm Credit Administration, who are paid out of operating revenues and not out of Federal appropriations. Data for other Government corporations are included under the executive service.

[3] Figures are as of the first of the calendar month, except for the seasonal post-office workers included in the executive service in December of each year.

[4] Revised.

[5] Preliminary.

[6] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. Figures for December 1945 include 3 pay periods covering 6 weeks for per annum employees

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TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls of the Executive Branch of the Federal Government, in Selected Months* [1]

Year and month	All agencies	War agencies [2]			Other agencies [3]		
		Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [4]	Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [4]
	Employment [5]						
December 1939	981,404	237,416	204,048	33,368	743,988	733,343	10,645
December 1940	1,178,221	390,629	330,948	59,681	787,592	775,214	12,378
December 1941	1,691,833	793,089	673,036	120,053	898,744	885,035	13,709
December 1942	2,977,033	2,001,275	1,775,454	225,821	975,758	961,101	14,657
December 1943	3,437,764	2,397,840	2,018,676	379,164	1,039,924	1,022,901	17,023
December 1944	3,659,220	2,541,176	2,046,206	494,970	1,118,044	1,101,101	16,883
September 1945 [6]	3,683,661	2,749,226	1,909,339	839,887	934,435	910,021	24,414
October 1945 [6]	3,451,871	2,494,739	1,648,236	846,503	957,132	933,040	24,092
November 1945 [7]	3,295,470	2,328,901	1,538,319	790,582	966,569	942,352	24,217
December 1945 [7]	3,433,362	2,206,338	1,471,989	734,349	1,227,024	1,202,126	24,898
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [8]						
December 1943	$695,364	$514,131	$456,601	$57,530	$181,233	$177,737	$3,496
December 1944	700,870	509,619	455,993	53,626	191,251	187,648	3,603
September 1945 [6]	622,992	434,629	370,727	63,893	188,372	183,414	4,958
October 1945 [6]	585,011	390,532	330,440	60,092	194,479	189,123	5,356
November 1945 [7]	573,307	373,656	314,929	58,727	199,651	194,328	5,323
December 1945 [7]	749,802	431,848	378,389	53,459	317,954	312,492	5,462

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards who are also included under shipbuilding (table 4) and employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5).
[2] Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, and the emergency war agencies.
[3] Beginning July 1945, data include approximately 22,000 clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.
[4] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.
[5] Figures are as of the first of the calendar month, except for the seasonal post-ofice workers included in December of each year.
[6] Revised.
[7] Preliminary.
[8] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. Figures for December 1945 include 3 pay periods covering 6 weeks for per annum employees.

Employment in Shipyards

During December 1945, employment in shipyards dropped to the lowest level of any month since November 1941. The 528,100 workers in December were 926,300 below the number employed a year ago, and 1,194,400 below the number employed in December 1943, the peak month for the industry. Employment declined 32,900 during the month, representing a loss of 29,500 workers in private shipyards and 3,400 workers in United States navy yards.

The greatest numerical loss was in Atlantic Coast shipyards—14,800, or nearly half the total decrease from November. The 302,500 workers employed in private shipyards represented a 78 percent drop from the peak month for these yards; while the 225,600 workers in United States navy yards represented a decrease of only 32 percent from the peak.

Pay rolls of shipyard workers amounted to $119,258,000 during December as compared with $124,515,000 during November.

Data on employment and pay rolls are received monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics directly from private shipyards. Data

for United States navy yards are received monthly from the Navy Department. Employees in the navy yards are also included in data for the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3).

TABLE 4.—*Total Employment and Pay Rolls in United States Navy Yards and Private Shipyards, by Shipbuilding Region, December 1945*

Shipbuilding region	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	December 1945 [1]	November 1945	December 1944	December 1945 [1]	November 1945	December 1944
All regions	528.1	561.0	1,454.4	$119,258	$124,515	$431,760
United States navy yards [2]	225.6	229.0	319.3	52,192	51,003	95,255
Private shipyards	302.5	332.0	1,135.1	67,066	73,512	336,505
North Atlantic	243.6	253.2	515.9	57,206	58,541	156,369
South Atlantic	58.3	63.5	128.9	13,232	13,304	38,208
Gulf	46.3	54.4	194.6	9,306	10,914	55,634
Pacific	167.8	176.8	507.5	36,908	38,911	148,355
Great Lakes	7.1	7.3	53.0	1,549	1,623	17,128
Inland	5.0	5.8	54.5	1,057	1,222	16,066

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay (Maryland) Coast Guard yard. Data are also included in the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3).

Construction Employment

Employment on construction in continental United States continued to climb unseasonally in December 1945, reaching a total of 1,205,500—22,700 above November, and 522,900 above December 1944. The entire increase during the month was on nonfederally financed projects, Federal construction employment having dropped from 115,900 in November to 96,900 in December.

Although all types of non-Federal projects shared in the employment gain over the year and all types of Federal construction (except electrification projects and river, harbor, and flood control work) experienced decreases in employment, there was considerable change in the over-all picture. In December 1945, employment on nonfederally financed projects (953,000) accounted for nine-tenths of all site construction employment, as compared with a little over six-tenths (381,200) in December 1944. Both new residential and new nonresidential building construction claimed a greater portion of the non-Federal total this year than last—31 percent and 43 percent, respectively, in December 1945, and 22 percent and 33 percent in December 1944.

The shift in the composition of Federal construction employment was in the opposite direction. In December 1945, employment on Federal new residential building (3,700) comprised 4 percent of Federal work, and new nonresidential building construction employment (47,100) constituted 49 percent. Corresponding figures for December 1944 were: 5 percent of Federal total (10,800 workers) employed on new residential building, and 67 percent (149,800 workers) on new nonresidential building construction.

Source of data.—For construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls at the construction site directly from the contractors or from the Federal agency sponsor-

ing the project. Force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government are also included in tables 2 and 3 under Federal executive service.

Estimates of employment on non-Federal construction projects (except State roads) are obtained by converting the value of work started (compiled from reports on building permits issued, priorities granted, and from certain special reports) into monthly expenditures and employment by means of factors which have been developed from special studies and adjusted to current conditions. For State roads projects, data represent estimates of the Public Roads Administration.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction Within Continental United States, December 1945*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	December 1945 [1]	November 1945 [2]	December 1944	December 1945 [1]	November 1945	December 1944
New construction, total [3]	1,205.5	1,182.8	682.6	(4)	(4)	(4)
At the construction site	1,049.9	1,035.6	606.3	(4)	(4)	(4)
Federal projects [5]	[6] 96.9	[6] 115.9	[6] 225.1	[7] $17,859	[7] $21,452	[7] $37,707
Airports	4.3	5.9	9.0	847	1,316	1,798
Buildings	50.8	66.3	160.6	8,994	11,491	25,056
Residential	3.7	5.4	10.8	814	1,172	2,218
Nonresidential [8]	[6] 47.1	[6] 60.9	[6] 149.8	[7] 8,180	[7] 10,319	[7] 22,838
Electrification	.8	.9	.5	141	186	58
Reclamation	6.4	6.0	8.1	1,239	1,223	1,829
River, harbor, and flood control	18.1	18.4	17.1	3,622	3,819	3,273
Streets and highways	9.5	10.2	9.8	1,766	1,875	1,623
Water and sewer systems	2.4	2.3	3.9	420	401	622
Miscellaneous	4.6	5.9	16.1	830	1,141	3,448
Non-Federal projects	953.0	919.7	381.2	(4)	(4)	(4)
Buildings	704.1	630.1	208.9	159,830	142,403	48,674
Residential	293.5	263.2	83.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Nonresidential	410.6	366.9	125.4	(4)	(4)	(4)
Farm dwellings and service buildings	53.0	80.8	48.6	(4)	(4)	(4)
Public utilities	113.3	120.6	90.6	(4)	(4)	(4)
Streets and highways	33.7	37.1	18.4	(4)	(4)	(4)
State	13.0	14.5	8.9	(4)	(4)	(4)
County and municipal	20.7	22.6	9.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Miscellaneous	48.9	51.1	14.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
Other [9]	155.6	147.2	76.3	(4)	(4)	(4)
Maintenance of State roads [10]	87.5	89.6	78.8	(4)	(4)	(4)

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Revised.
[3] Data are for all construction workers (contract and force-account) engaged on new construction, additions, alterations, and on repair work of the type usually covered by building permits. (Force-account employees are workers hired directly by the owner and utilized as a separate work force to perform construction work of the type usually chargeable to capital account.) The construction figure included in the Bureau's nonagricultural employment series covers only employees of construction contractors and on Federal force-account and excludes force-account workers of State and local governments, public utilities, and private firms.
[4] Data not available.
[5] Includes the following force-account employees, hired directly by the Federal Government, and their pay rolls: December 1945, 16,474, $3,039,700; November 1945, 16,765, $3,101,500; December 1944, 21,156, $1,144,300. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service (tables 2 and 3); all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.
[6] Includes employment on construction of plants to produce atomic bombs, which, for security reasons, was not previously included in these estimates but was shown in the classification "other", as follows: December 1945, 6,600; November 1945, 10,400; December 1944, 44,000.
[7] Excludes pay-roll data for construction of plants to produce atomic bombs.
[8] Employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation projects are included, but those for projects financed from RFC loans are excluded. The latter are considered non-Federal projects.
[9] Includes central office force of construction contractors, shop employees of special trades contractors, such as bench sheet-metal workers, etc.
[10] Data for other types of maintenance not available.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, November 1945

Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of employment in nonagricultural establishments are shown in table 1. The estimates are based on reports of employers to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on unemployment-compensation data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance. The estimates include all wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural establishments but exclude military personnel, proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic servants.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are published each month in a detailed report on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
Total estimated employment [1]	35,651	35,216	35,321	38,347
Manufacturing [2]	11,947	11,941	12,082	15,607
Mining	792	718	784	812
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,050	1,006	945	629
Transportation and public utilities	3,869	3,824	3,831	3,771
Trade	7,573	7,328	7,143	7,299
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,845	4,698	4,603	4,315
Federal, State and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,575	5,701	5,933	5,914

[1] Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

[2] Estimates for manufacturing have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1942 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Since the estimated number of production workers in manufacturing industries has been further adjusted to final 1943 data, subsequent to December 1942, the two sets of estimates are not comparable.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 27 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared

by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The employment, pay roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and cleaning and dyeing, cover production workers only; but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover production workers and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from about 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, cleaning and dyeing, and insurance, to about 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 154 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total production workers in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the production workers in the 154 industries covered.

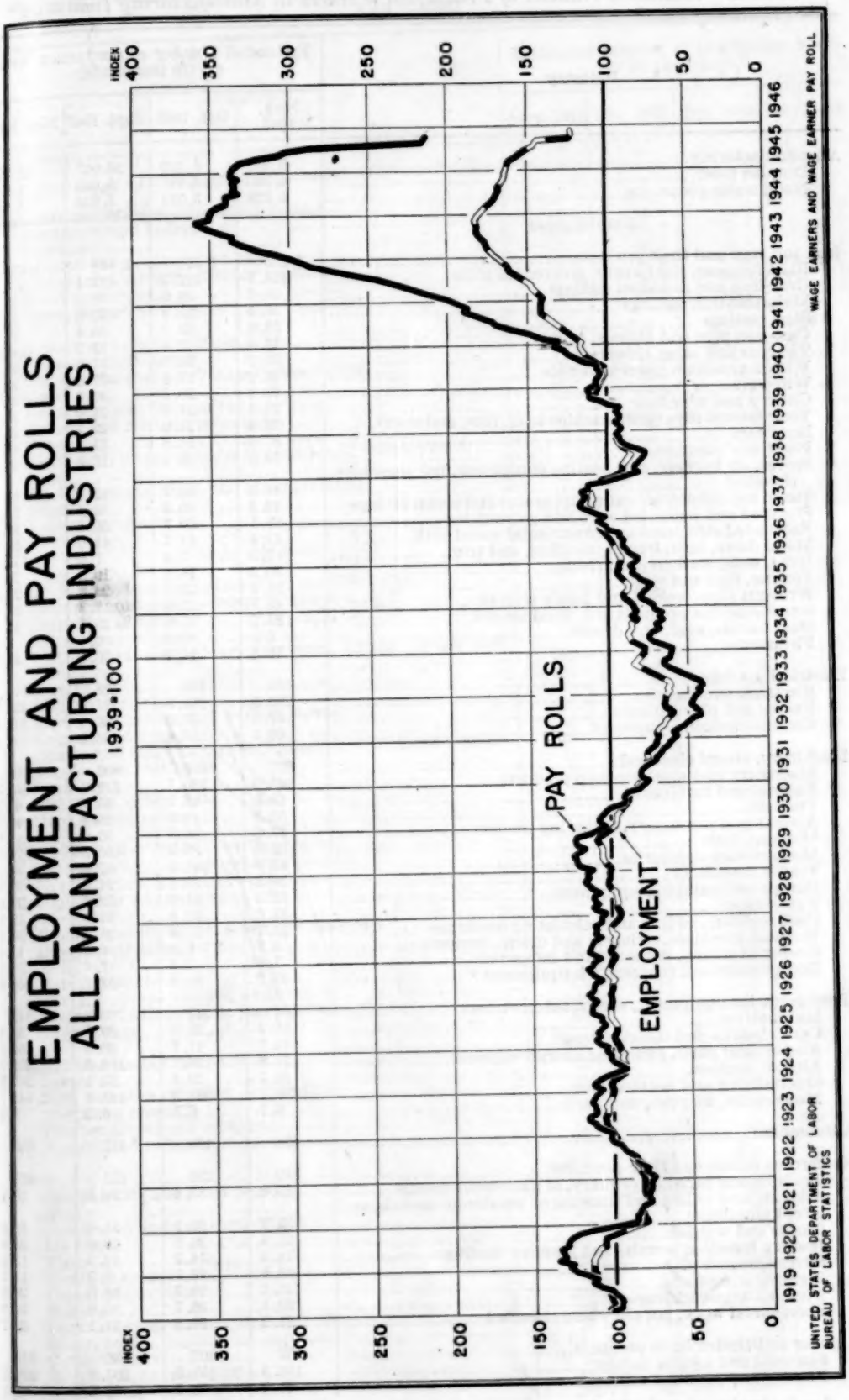
Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, for September, October, and November 1945, and for November 1944, are presented in tables 3 and 5.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to levels indicated by final data for 1943 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (*a*) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs and (*b*) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers, regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustments to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group do not in general add to the total for that group.


EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1939=100
INDEX
400
350
300
250
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0
PAY ROLLS
EMPLOYMENT
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 1946
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
WAGE EARNERS AND WAGE EARNER PAY ROLL

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
All manufacturing	9,958	9,930	10,027	13,350
Durable goods	4,930	4,917	5,003	7,915
Nondurable goods	5,028	5,013	5,024	5,435
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,205	1,191	1,194	1,663
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	428.1	422.9	422.4	473.8
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	69.7	68.0	66.1	73.2
Malleable-iron castings	23.1	21.9	22.0	25.1
Steel castings	51.0	53.2	53.4	71.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	14.4	13.8	13.2	15.4
Tin cans and other tinware	35.2	35.8	37.6	38.9
Wire drawn from purchased rods	27.9	27.8	27.5	32.1
Wirework	29.9	28.3	26.0	34.7
Cutlery and edge tools	22.3	21.6	21.0	23.7
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	22.3	21.9	22.7	26.9
Hardware	37.0	34.8	33.9	45.9
Plumbers' supplies	19.0	18.1	17.5	21.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	48.6	46.7	43.8	62.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	42.2	40.3	40.4	54.8
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	63.5	60.5	59.8	86.2
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	42.4	41.3	41.0	72.5
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	7.3	7.2	7.0	10.8
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	20.2	19.6	19.5	24.6
Forging, iron and steel	24.2	25.7	25.1	35.0
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	13.7	13.8	12.3	24.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws	25.3	25.0	25.1	42.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	5.9	5.3	6.0	7.7
Firearms	11.8	11.2	10.6	38.0
Electrical machinery	461	449	428	719
Electrical equipment	299.8	291.8	271.0	433.0
Radios and phonographs	57.3	56.0	57.4	121.4
Communication equipment	66.7	65.4	65.7	107.2
Machinery, except electrical	877	876	880	1,169
Machinery and machine-shop products	325.0	330.1	332.9	445.5
Engines and turbines	42.6	42.9	44.7	67.5
Tractors	50.5	49.5	48.8	56.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	37.6	35.9	36.0	44.0
Machine tools	52.9	58.7	60.3	74.0
Machine-tool accessories	45.6	45.9	47.4	64.5
Textile machinery	26.3	25.5	24.9	27.3
Pumps and pumping equipment	52.2	51.6	52.5	73.6
Typewriters	13.6	12.6	11.5	12.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	25.7	24.4	25.2	31.1
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	8.7	7.4	6.5	11.4
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	7.6	7.5	7.4	10.5
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment [2]	39.2	34.8	32.1	51.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	554	643	760	2,142
Locomotives	31.2	29.9	29.7	35.5
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	45.1	41.7	40.5	56.5
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	121.8	126.1	156.5	632.7
Aircraft engines	26.7	29.4	33.1	219.3
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	286.1	368.2	445.4	1,045.7
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	8.7	6.5	6.2	9.2
Automobiles	494	440	411	680
Nonferrous metals and their products	310	296	291	402
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	35.6	35.4	36.8	40.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	53.3	50.1	51.6	69.0
Clocks and watches	21.9	20.8	19.6	25.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	14.9	14.2	13.5	13.4
Silverware and plated ware	10.8	10.1	9.7	11.1
Lighting equipment	21.7	19.7	16.8	26.3
Aluminum manufactures	39.1	36.7	35.9	64.2
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	21.2	21.3	21.1	32.7
Lumber and timber basic products	407	405	435	475
Sawmills and logging camps	192.5	191.5	207.7	226.1
Planing and plywood mills	61.0	60.6	63.1	69.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
***Durable goods*—Continued**				
Furniture and finished lumber products	307	295	291	338
Mattresses and bedsprings	15.4	14.5	14.7	18.0
Furniture	135.9	130.5	128.4	152.7
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	23.7	23.3	23.2	27.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.0	11.8	11.3	12.0
Wood preserving	10.7	10.1	10.3	9.7
Wood, turned and shaped	21.0	19 9.	19.5	21.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	315	322	313	327
Glass and glassware	76.8	86.6	84.5	87.2
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.7	10.3	9.8	10.6
Cement	20.2	20.3	19.4	17.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	46.9	44.6	42.7	41.4
Pottery and related products	39.7	38.8	37.4	39.9
Gypsum	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.0
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.5	9.2	9.0	9.6
Lime	7.7	7.5	7.4	7.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13.2	12.9	11.9	13.9
Abrasives	16.3	16.6	17.1	21.1
Asbestos products	16.7	17.5	17.5	19.9
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,042	1,037	1,032	1,096
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	398.9	404.3	407.0	428.8
Cotton smallwares	13.1	12.6	12.4	13.5
Silk and rayon goods	84.5	85.2	84.9	89.2
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	143.0	139.5	136.3	146.8
Hosiery	101.7	98.3	96.2	102.0
Knitted cloth	10.4	10.2	9.6	10.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	28.3	27.3	26.3	29.2
Knitted underwear	33.6	33.3	32.5	34.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	54.6	54.1	55.9	59.3
Carpets and rugs, wool	18.4	17.9	17.8	20.3
Hats, fur-felt	9.8	9.6	9.3	9.4
Jute goods, except felts	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.3
Cordage and twine	14.2	14.0	13.8	15.1
Apparel and other finished textile products	795	798	788	868
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	177.1	179.7	180.5	205.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	50.5	49.4	48.5	51.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	11.7	10.9	11.3	12.2
Work shirts	13.1	13.2	13.1	14.5
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	203.9	205.9	202.1	217.5
Corsets and allied garments	14.9	14.5	14.1	15.0
Millinery	18.0	18.3	18.1	18.4
Handkerchiefs	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.8
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	11.2	11.0	9.8	13.0
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	9.1	8.6	8.1	11.8
Textile bags	15.0	14.8	14.4	13.9
Leather and leather products	314	307	300	314
Leather	40.7	39.8	38.8	39.2
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	16.3	15.9	16.3	16.2
Boots and shoes	173.6	169.5	164.6	172.3
Leather gloves and mittens	10.9	11.1	10.9	12.8
Trunks and suitcases	11.8	11.4	10.9	13.0
Food	1,042	1,074	1,140	1,086
Slaughtering and meat packing	132.5	126.9	126.5	149.1
Butter	22.7	22.8	23.7	21.1
Condensed and evaporated milk	13.3	14.0	14.9	13.0
Ice cream	15.6	16.0	16.6	13.9
Flour	31.1	31.3	30.8	28.9
Feeds, prepared	23.5	23.3	23.0	20.4
Cereal preparations	9.1	8.1	9.5	8.4
Baking	254.3	252.8	251.0	264.8
Sugar refining, cane	12.3	12.2	13.1	14.5
Sugar, beet	23.0	19.1	7.6	21.8
Confectionery	55.3	53.6	50.7	60.7
Beverages, nonalcoholic	23.6	24.1	25.7	26.5
Malt liquors	54.2	54.4	55.2	51.3
Canning and preserving	123.6	166.8	237.1	134.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Tobacco manufactures	83	86	83	84
Cigarettes	34.9	35.9	34.9	35.8
Cigars	34.5	35.9	34.3	34.6
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.7	8.8	8.7	8.4
Paper and allied products	317	312	304	313
Paper and pulp	148.2	145.5	142.0	145.0
Paper goods, other	43.2	43.1	41.9	44.8
Envelopes	9.6	9.7	9.5	9.7
Paper bags	13.2	12.6	12.2	13.2
Paper boxes	80.5	79.2	76.8	78.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	347	336	324	326
Newspapers and periodicals	119.8	115.3	112.5	110.7
Printing, book and job	142.6	138.9	133.1	134.5
Lithographing	26.0	25.1	24.2	24.4
Bookbinding	28.4	27.8	26.3	27.8
Chemicals and allied products	445	442	452	608
Paints, varnishes, and colors	31.7	31.0	29.7	29.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	48.0	47.6	46.9	49.6
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.4	12.6	12.4	12.8
Soap	13.6	13.4	13.2	13.5
Rayon and allied products	56.1	54.7	53.4	53.7
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	110.6	109.2	111.7	115.2
Explosives and safety fuses	25.7	30.2	39.2	90.3
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.6
Ammunition, small-arms	11.3	10.4	13.5	50.4
Fireworks	3.1	3.2	3.3	26.6
Cottonseed oil	20.6	18.0	14.7	21.1
Fertilizers	20.8	20.4	20.9	20.0
Products of petroleum and coal	138	129	130	132
Petroleum refining	95.4	88.5	87.7	90.3
Coke and byproducts	22.1	21.4	22.1	22.2
Paving materials	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.6
Roofing materials	9.3	9.4	9.8	9.6
Rubber products	179	173	155	196
Rubber tires and inner tubes	91.4	88.2	71.8	92.8
Rubber boots and shoes [2]	14.2	13.9	14.7	18.3
Rubber goods, other	61.5	59.4	57.7	70.3
Miscellaneous industries	326	319	316	412
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	22.3	23.9	26.2	59.2
Photographic apparatus	21.5	20.6	20.9	27.9
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	19.4	19.1	18.8	23.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	5.6	5.3	5.2	7.1
Games, toys, and dolls	15.7	14.4	12.8	16.9
Buttons	9.2	9.0	8.8	9.4
Fire extinguishers	2.3	2.3	2.5	5.1

[1] Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and should not be compared with the manufacturing employment estimates of production workers plus salaried employees appearing in table 1. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certan industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

[2] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.—July 1945 production workers to 45.3.
Rubber boots and shoes.—August 1945 production workers to 16.4.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
All manufacturing	121.6	121.2	122.4	163.0	212.8	213.0	214.2	331.8
Durable goods	136.5	136.2	138.5	219.2	232.4	234.5	236.4	457.2
Nondurable goods	109.8	109.4	109.7	118.6	193.6	191.9	192.6	209.2
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	121.5	120.1	120.5	167.7	203.7	201.9	200.2	313.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	110.2	108.9	108.8	122.0	176.0	172.7	175.3	221.9
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	119.3	116.5	113.2	125.3	221.1	222.3	214.8	251.7
Malleable-iron castings	128.1	121.5	121.8	138.9	242.6	235.4	228.4	291.9
Steel castings	169.5	176.9	177.6	238.1	283.8	291.8	280.9	448.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	87.2	83.5	80.0	93.2	170.7	164.5	151.2	187.9
Tin cans and other tinware	110.8	112.7	118.4	122.4	185.5	186.2	200.7	205.4
Wire drawn from purchased rods	127.1	126.3	125.1	145.9	191.3	189.2	179.4	251.2
Wirework	98.4	93.0	85.7	114.3	178.2	171.1	153.9	229.7
Cutlery and edge tools [2]	144.3	140.3	136.5	153.8	283.5	272.5	265.0	320.4
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	145.9	142.8	148.3	175.4	253.9	254.1	256.7	332.0
Hardware	103.7	97.7	95.0	128.9	190.7	183.9	173.9	266.4
Plumbers' supplies	77.1	73.3	71.2	88.4	126.4	118.0	114.2	161.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	105.3	101.4	95.1	135.5	182.1	179.7	160.5	260.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	139.3	133.1	133.4	180.8	238.1	230.2	234.0	351.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	114.3	109.0	107.7	155.2	206.5	198.6	190.1	313.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	119.5	116.3	115.5	204.2	187.7	186.7	179.0	397.4
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	94.2	92.4	90.1	140.0	164.7	159.5	152.0	266.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	141.3	136.7	136.1	171.6	259.4	248.0	217.1	335.1
Forgings, iron and steel	157.7	167.2	163.5	227.7	266.3	288.5	258.5	459.2
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	163.6	164.3	147.1	291.4	255.1	247.5	233.2	568.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws	149.5	147.6	148.6	250.8	272.5	267.2	260.2	488.9
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	97.0	87.3	98.5	126.4	178.0	154.6	164.5	247.8
Firearms	235.4	223.0	213.0	760.2	428.8	399.0	380.0	1758.4
Electrical machinery	177.8	173.4	165.3	277.6	290.3	278.3	258.8	507.2
Electrical equipment	165.8	161.4	149.9	239.5	265.3	254.7	229.7	443.8
Radios and phonographs	131.8	128.6	131.8	278.9	237.5	218.2	227.6	541.7
Communication equipment [3]	207.6	203.7	204.6	333.7	328.7	323.3	313.9	549.5
Machinery, except electrical	165.9	165.7	166.6	221.2	274.7	275.7	275.5	416.1
Machinery and machine-shop products	160.7	163.2	164.6	220.2	266.8	271.8	266.4	408.4
Engines and turbines	228.6	230.0	239.6	362.1	366.7	379.5	368.6	766.4
Tractors	161.3	158.1	155.9	180.9	228.8	220.0	237.5	289.7
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	135.3	129.0	129.3	158.1	230.9	229.6	246.8	311.2
Machine tools	144.4	160.3	164.8	202.2	238.6	260.7	266.1	363.2
Machine-tool accessories [2]	181.2	182.3	188.2	256.3	269.9	270.7	279.6	441.3
Textile machinery	120.2	116.5	113.6	124.4	218.9	215.2	209.8	233.3
Pumps and pumping equipment	215.3	213.0	216.6	303.8	384.8	386.0	389.9	626.5
Typewriters	83.6	77.7	71.2	75.8	153.8	144.6	133.1	154.7
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	130.5	123.9	128.1	158.2	231.3	207.1	210.4	305.8
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	115.9	99.0	87.4	153.0	186.4	157.9	143.2	268.3
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	97.0	95.9	94.6	134.0	188.4	191.0	192.8	282.3
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment [2]	111.5	99.1	91.2	147.3	175.6	158.6	146.7	265.6
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	349.2	405.1	479.0	1349.4	565.7	687.5	814.4	2948.7
Locomotives	482.8	461.5	458.4	549.0	1011.1	921.4	894.1	1256.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	183.9	170.0	165.1	230.2	305.2	292.5	271.7	467.7
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	307.1	317.8	394.5	1594.8	510.3	534.8	624.5	3135.8
Aircraft engines	300.5	331.1	372.2	2466.1	392.8	444.3	469.7	4278.4
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	413.2	531.8	643.3	1510.2	641.5	893.4	1115.9	3497.8
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	124.9	93.6	88.6	131.7	209.4	151.6	132.7	241.7
Automobiles	122.8	109.5	102.1	169.1	184.5	164.4	145.8	312.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	135.3	129.0	127.1	175.2	235.9	223.1	216.2	332.8
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	128.8	128.1	133.0	146.3	226.8	226.8	239.4	266.8
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	137.4	129.2	133.0	177.8	238.7	223.4	222.6	333.7
Clocks and watches	108.1	102.7	96.6	127.8	198.6	188.5	168.5	272.8
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	102.9	98.1	93.7	92.8	184.4	174.3	165.9	159.5
Silverware and plated ware	88.6	83.0	80.1	91.4	172.9	150.5	144.2	164.6
Lighting equipment	105.8	96.2	82.2	128.3	175.3	155.4	129.7	229.4
Aluminum manufactures	166.2	155.9	152.5	272.5	256.7	237.2	219.9	497.0
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	112.9	113.8	112.4	174.2	200.0	200.3	200.1	337.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
Durable goods—Continued								
Lumber and timber basic products	96.8	96.3	103.4	112.9	164.3	169.1	184.2	205.3
Sawmills and logging camps	66.8	66.5	72.1	78.5	113.8	117.4	130.3	143.8
Planing and plywood mills	83.9	83.4	86.8	95.6	137.3	140.4	145.2	166.0
Furniture and finished lumber products	93.6	89.8	88.8	103.1	166.5	161.9	157.5	190.8
Mattresses and bedsprings	84.0	79.3	80.3	98.0	143.1	133.8	137.9	174.0
Furniture	85.3	82.0	80.6	95.9	151.1	147.1	140.8	177.2
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	93.6	91.7	91.3	107.3	181.1	177.4	176.6	215.0
Caskets and other morticians' goods	96.6	95.0	90.6	96.0	153.0	156.9	149.6	163.1
Wood preserving	95.6	89.6	91.2	85.9	207.3	201.3	209.4	185.7
Wood, turned and shaped	95.3	90.3	88.5	97.5	168.1	161.1	159.0	176.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	107.4	109.8	106.7	111.5	177.4	184.9	177.4	189.7
Glass and glassware	110.1	124.0	121.0	124.9	170.9	196.1	188.9	200.8
Glass products made from purchased glass	107.2	102.9	98.1	106.3	183.2	183.0	172.2	179.6
Cement	84.8	85.1	81.3	71.7	135.4	139.4	131.0	116.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	82.6	78.5	75.2	72.9	139.1	133.4	125.6	119.8
Pottery and related products	119.9	117.1	113.0	120.5	188.1	186.7	172.7	190.9
Gypsum	92.4	84.3	82.9	80.6	155.1	148.0	144.8	143.0
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	117.7	113.4	110.9	118.5	220.6	220.5	211.2	217.2
Lime	81.8	78.8	77.9	81.4	167.8	166.8	158.3	157.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	71.3	69.5	64.3	75.1	105.3	107.2	102.0	113.9
Abrasives	210.7	214.5	220.6	272.5	328.8	327.1	339.6	473.6
Asbestos products	105.2	110.3	110.4	125.6	206.7	215.8	216.9	255.0
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	91.1	90.6	90.2	95.8	171.3	168.1	166.7	174.6
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	100.7	102.1	102.8	108.3	199.9	198.6	201.0	206.8
Cotton smallwares	98.5	94.5	92.9	101.4	178.2	167.4	166.0	180.0
Silk and rayon goods	70.5	71.1	70.9	74.4	142.0	143.0	138.2	139.4
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	95.8	93.5	91.3	98.4	184.0	178.3	175.4	189.4
Hosiery	64.0	61.8	60.5	64.1	109.0	105.3	101.1	104.7
Knitted cloth	94.9	93.1	88.3	93.6	180.1	176.6	168.1	163.8
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	100.5	97.0	93.6	103.7	192.5	187.6	172.1	193.2
Knitted underwear	87.1	86.3	84.3	89.3	161.5	161.1	157.2	165.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	81.6	80.8	83.6	88.7	140.4	135.0	141.9	150.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	72.0	69.8	69.4	79.4	124.6	114.9	113.7	136.6
Hats, fur-felt	67.4	65.7	63.8	64.5	140.6	135.8	124.8	124.9
Jute goods, except felts	100.0	98.0	95.3	92.4	198.8	193.1	190.3	182.6
Cordage and twine	117.2	115.7	114.2	124.9	220.4	217.9	218.0	235.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	100.6	101.0	99.8	110.0	177.7	183.6	180.3	195.5
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	81.0	82.2	82.5	94.1	137.5	141.5	141.4	169.2
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	71.6	70.1	68.8	72.5	132.1	131.4	126.1	128.7
Underwear and neckwear, men's	72.5	67.5	70.3	75.6	147.7	141.7	141.8	152.4
Work shirts	97.5	98.5	97.1	107.8	188.7	201.1	188.3	210.5
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	75.1	75.8	74.4	80.1	136.2	141.6	138.4	141.1
Corsets and allied garments	79.2	77.5	74.9	80.1	142.7	139.0	132.2	141.4
Millinery	74.0	75.4	74.5	75.5	110.2	134.8	131.1	104.6
Handkerchiefs	52.8	54.6	53.9	58.2	98.3	102.1	98.1	110.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	66.2	65.1	57.8	76.7	129.6	127.7	111.0	154.3
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	85.2	81.3	76.4	111.2	149.9	142.2	131.0	212.8
Textile bags	125.2	123.2	120.5	116.1	208.4	207.9	207.5	198.9
Leather and leather products	90.6	88.5	86.3	90.6	161.9	161.7	157.2	159.5
Leather	86.2	84.2	82.1	82.9	146.4	151.1	146.3	143.3
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	86.4	84.3	86.5	85.7	138.0	138.1	143.4	141.6
Boots and shoes	79.6	77.7	75.5	79.0	145.7	144.2	140.3	141.9
Leather gloves and mittens	109.5	111.0	109.4	127.7	188.9	197.6	195.3	222.6
Trunks and suitcases	141.8	136.6	130.8	156.1	256.7	243.6	212.8	249.7
Food	121.9	125.7	133.4	127.1	206.4	207.7	218.5	206.0
Slaughtering and meat packing	110.0	105.3	105.0	123.7	185.2	173.1	177.6	211.4
Butter	126.5	127.0	132.1	117.6	203.5	204.1	216.2	180.1
Condensed and evaporated milk	137.5	144.0	153.9	134.3	223.5	235.7	261.0	211.4
Ice cream	99.4	101.9	105.9	88.8	151.6	153.0	161.8	126.5
Flour	125.4	126.3	124.3	116.8	212.8	224.6	218.2	195.1
Feeds, prepared	152.6	151.5	149.2	132.3	267.9	262.3	267.2	219.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries*—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food—Continued.								
Cereal preparations	122.0	108.6	126.9	113.3	211.9	194.9	243.9	197.3
Baking	110.2	109.6	108.8	114.8	181.4	176.8	173.6	174.5
Sugar refining, cane	86.8	85.9	92.3	102.6	124.5	127.2	145.3	162.2
Sugar, beet	220.9	183.7	72.5	209.3	361.9	256.7	108.9	298.6
Confectionery	111.3	107.8	102.0	122.0	197.6	188.0	175.4	205.1
Beverages, nonalcoholic	111.2	113.1	120.7	124.7	150.8	153.4	168.4	166.2
Malt liquors	150.2	150.8	153.0	142.2	225.2	226.2	242.6	204.1
Canning and preserving	191.9	124.0	176.3	99.9	178.9	251.7	351.6	188.7
Tobacco manufactures	89.2	92.2	89.1	90.1	171.8	181.4	175.3	172.2
Cigarettes	127.1	131.0	127.2	130.6	207.8	217.9	214.1	215.6
Cigars	67.7	70.5	67.5	68.0	148.7	158.7	148.4	144.0
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	94.7	96.3	95.2	91.9	153.9	160.6	164.6	155.9
Paper and allied products	119.3	117.5	114.4	118.1	204.9	201.2	195.5	197.5
Paper and pulp	107.8	105.8	103.3	105.5	190.0	186.7	180.5	182.0
Paper goods, other	114.7	114.5	111.3	119.0	186.5	184.8	182.6	195.1
Envelopes	110.5	111.6	109.6	111.4	176.8	176.2	174.5	171.9
Paper bags	118.8	114.0	109.8	119.1	215.2	206.1	196.4	205.8
Paper boxes	116.3	114.6	111.1	113.9	197.0	192.6	185.5	183.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	105.9	102.5	98.8	99.3	158.5	150.7	147.7	139.3
Newspapers and periodicals	101.0	97.2	94.8	93.3	138.3	132.9	130.3	120.8
Printing, book and job	112.9	110.0	105.4	106.4	178.1	168.6	166.5	156.8
Lithographing	100.1	96.5	93.2	93.7	157.1	148.2	141.0	136.5
Bookbinding	110.1	107.9	102.0	107.7	200.6	191.4	184.7	182.3
Chemicals and allied products	154.3	153.2	156.9	210.9	256.6	258.6	266.4	366.5
Paints, varnishes, and colors	112.6	110.1	105.6	106.0	174.7	171.9	167.0	167.0
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	175.3	173.6	171.2	181.0	268.7	268.8	265.0	269.7
Perfumes and cosmetics	119.5	121.4	120.1	123.2	181.0	185.1	178.9	182.6
Soap [2]	100.1	98.6	97.6	99.4	161.9	165.1	170.2	168.2
Rayon and allied products	116.2	113.4	110.6	111.3	186.8	184.1	177.2	179.0
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	159.0	157.0	160.5	165.5	260.8	261.3	273.6	289.2
Explosives and safety fuses	354.8	416.6	540.8	1244.3	535.1	622.5	738.9	1865.1
Compressed and liquefied gases	138.9	142.6	140.6	142.6	225.3	222.5	230.0	254.2
Ammunition, small-arms	263.9	242.8	316.2	1182.6	487.7	472.0	561.8	2370.7
Fireworks	263.9	279.6	281.8	2294.0	660.5	698.1	755.3	6231.8
Cottonseed oil [2]	135.7	118.5	97.0	139.1	305.8	265.0	204.8	300.3
Fertilizers	110.7	108.4	111.2	106.5	240.2	249.8	261.0	233.6
Products of petroleum and coal	129.9	122.3	122.6	125.0	221.9	196.0	210.8	219.0
Petroleum refining	131.0	121.5	120.4	124.0	217.2	188.9	203.5	214.2
Coke and byproducts	101.9	98.8	101.9	102.1	185.0	163.5	181.6	179.0
Paving materials	72.4	72.0	71.4	65.6	134.3	140.7	142.0	125.6
Roofing materials	114.9	116.8	122.0	119.7	205.2	211.9	208.7	217.6
Rubber products	148.2	143.2	127.9	161.7	238.0	235.3	216.7	293.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes	168.9	163.0	132.7	171.4	240.2	239.8	211.4	298.2
Rubber boots and shoes [2]	95.9	93.9	99.4	123.3	177.8	170.5	185.6	219.6
Rubber goods, other	118.8	114.8	111.5	135.9	207.0	202.4	193.2	250.6
Miscellaneous industries	133.1	130.3	129.2	168.4	234.6	229.1	226.4	326.2
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	201.5	216.0	236.8	535.1	321.9	345.5	372.7	1013.9
Photographic apparatus	124.6	119.5	120.9	161.5	198.0	189.3	190.6	271.2
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	167.0	164.0	162.1	201.1	281.2	273.4	265.6	346.6
Pianos, organs, and parts	73.8	69.1	67.8	93.1	117.9	109.7	110.9	177.4
Games, toys, and dolls	84.0	77.3	68.7	90.6	147.1	139.8	124.3	186.7
Buttons	84.3	82.1	80.5	85.5	167.5	163.5	167.7	166.5
Fire extinguishers	229.8	232.7	252.1	516.3	459.3	461.3	463.4	1047.1

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1943 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

[2] Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes for earlier months:

Cutlery and edge tools.—August 1945 pay-roll index to 266.0.

Communication equipment.—August 1945 pay-roll index to 473.8.

Machine-tool accessories.—August 1945 pay-roll index to 339.6.

Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.—July 1945 employment index to 128.8; August 1945 pay-roll index to 177.6.

Soap.—July 1945 pay-roll index to 159.6.

Cottonseed oil.—June, July, and August 1945 pay-roll indexes to 168.0, 154.0 and 145.5.

Rubber boots and shoes.—August 1945 employment index to 110.6; pay-roll index to 203.9.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
Mining:				
Anthracite	64.8	64.7	64.3	66.1
Bituminous coal	324	262	325	340
Metal	65.0	64.0	63.7	69.9
Iron	23.7	23.7	23.7	24.7
Copper	19.3	19.0	18.8	22.2
Lead and zinc	13.7	13.2	13.2	14.6
Gold and silver	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.5
Miscellaneous	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.9
Telephone [1]	442	431	424	404
Telegraph [2]	47.0	46.4	45.6	45.8
Electric light and power [1]	215	209	206	201
Street railways and busses [1]	236	231	229	228
Hotels (year-round) [1]	376	371	362	356
Power laundries	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Cleaning and dyeing	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Class I steam railroads [4]	1,406	1,397	1,414	1,408
Water transportation [5]	165	163	168	140

[1] Data include salaried personnel.
[2] Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies. Data include salaried personnel.
[3] The change in definition from "wage earner" to "production worker" in the power laundries and cleaning and dyeing industries results in the omission of driver-salesmen. This causes a significant difference in the data. New series are being prepared.
[4] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.
[5] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1944
Mining:								
Anthracite	78.2	78.1	77.6	79.9	144.5	170.8	149.8	137.7
Bituminous coal	87.5	70.8	87.6	91.8	210.7	122.8	199.7	197.7
Metal	73.7	72.5	72.2	79.2	119.1	119.3	116.4	125.0
Iron	117.7	117.5	118.1	123.2	195.3	204.5	197.5	192.5
Copper	81.0	79.6	78.8	92.9	132.9	132.0	127.5	152.7
Lead and zinc	87.9	85.2	84.6	94.1	167.6	161.4	159.4	174.3
Gold and silver	24.3	23.1	22.3	22.0	31.5	29.4	28.4	28.0
Miscellaneous	58.9	61.6	63.6	72.5	89.4	93.9	104.6	119.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic	85.0	83.9	82.5	82.1	163.2	164.3	159.2	152.8
Crude-petroleum production [1]	86.7	84.9	84.0	82.1	141.4	133.6	138.4	130.9
Public utilities:								
Telephone	139.1	135.6	133.5	127.1	200.3	189.0	181.7	156.9
Telegraph	124.8	123.2	121.2	121.7	177.9	177.6	177.2	172.1
Electric light and power	88.1	85.7	84.5	82.1	125.7	120.9	120.6	114.2
Street railways and busses	121.7	119.2	118.0	117.7	179.1	178.1	177.1	170.1
Wholesale trade	101.8	99.4	97.0	96.8	155.2	150.7	145.6	140.0
Retail trade	106.1	101.1	97.6	103.2	152.0	144.2	138.7	134.2
Food	106.5	104.6	102.0	109.0	154.9	149.7	145.7	141.9
General merchandise	127.4	115.9	110.4	127.4	172.5	157.7	150.0	155.9
Apparel	117.1	112.5	106.4	118.4	175.7	167.4	155.0	159.5
Furniture and housefurnishings	69.3	65.5	63.2	64.4	103.8	97.2	92.1	90.1
Automotive	80.0	75.7	72.3	67.2	126.4	117.3	113.5	99.3
Lumber and building materials	101.0	99.0	96.1	91.2	150.7	150.9	146.7	130.5
Hotels (year-round) [2]	116.5	115.0	112.2	110.3	190.6	184.6	177.2	164.6
Power laundries	106.7	107.4	106.6	107.6	168.9	169.1	168.1	160.7
Cleaning and dyeing	120.6	124.7	122.3	117.1	193.5	207.6	199.2	181.9
Class I steam railroads [3]	142.4	141.4	143.1	142.5	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Water transportation [5]	315.1	311.0	320.5	267.7	582.1	566.8	669.6	651.9

[1] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[2] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.
[3] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[4] Not available.
[5] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for September, October, and November 1945, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. (For trend of earnings since 1939, see page 295 of this issue.)

The average weekly earnings for individual industries are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in this table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$40.89	$41.04	$40.87	41.3	41.7	41.4	99.0	98.5	98.7
Durable goods	43.97	44.40	43.95	41.4	41.8	41.0	106.3	106.3	107.2
Nondurable goods	37.88	37.77	37.80	41.3	41.6	41.8	91.7	90.9	90.3
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	45.78	45.87	45.48	42.6	42.6	41.8	107.6	107.6	108.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	47.82	47.50	48.26	42.2	41.8	41.2	113.2	113.5	117.1
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	47.15	48.59	48.45	43.3	44.8	44.7	108.2	108.5	108.4
Malleable-iron castings	46.54	48.24	46.68	42.4	44.2	43.1	109.9	109.1	108.2
Steel castings	46.94	46.28	44.37	42.3	41.9	39.4	110.7	110.2	112.3
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	40.99	41.23	39.64	44.9	45.6	43.8	90.9	90.5	90.4
Tin cans and other tinware	40.02	39.25	40.31	43.3	42.6	44.1	92.4	92.5	91.7
Wirework	44.99	45.88	44.80	43.9	44.0	43.3	102.6	104.4	103.6
Cutlery and edge tools [2]	41.94	41.48	41.57	44.1	44.4	43.9	95.3	93.5	94.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	42.46	43.48	42.14	43.5	44.5	43.3	97.7	97.8	97.4
Hardware	40.89	42.02	40.80	43.5	43.9	43.2	94.4	95.6	94.5
Plumbers' supplies	43.02	42.13	41.89	42.5	42.2	42.0	101.2	99.8	99.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	42.91	44.16	42.15	42.4	43.7	42.2	101.8	101.2	99.8
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	44.12	44.69	45.11	42.7	43.3	43.3	103.5	103.	2104.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	41.77	41.84	40.50	41.5	42.3	41.2	99.9	98.9	98.7
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	44.00	44.94	43.34	41.8	42.5	41.0	104.6	105.0	105.1
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	46.90	46.51	45.47	43.9	43.4	42.3	107.3	107.1	107.5
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	46.12	45.62	40.17	44.3	44.4	39.3	104.0	102.5	101.9
Forgings, iron and steel	50.43	51.71	47.48	41.7	42.4	39.7	121.0	121.9	119.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945
Durable goods—Continued									
Iron and steel and their products—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Screw-machine products and wood screws	$46.86	$46.57	$45.04	43.8	43.9	42.8	106.4	105.6	105.2
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	39.84	38.47	36.23	40.6	39.5	36.7	98.4	96.9	98.0
Firearms	48.14	47.44	47.14	43.2	43.0	41.1	111.4	110.3	114.8
Electrical machinery	43.24	42.39	41.37	41.5	41.1	40.8	104.1	103.1	101.4
Electrical equipment	43.83	43.06	41.87	41.7	41.3	40.9	105.2	104.3	102.4
Radios and phonographs	39.18	36.87	37.53	40.6	39.4	40.8	96.4	93.6	91.9
Communication equipment [2]	44.06	44.16	42.58	41.8	41.8	40.4	105.4	105.6	105.7
Machinery, except electrical	48.28	48.50	48.12	42.9	43.4	43.0	112.6	111.8	111.9
Machinery and machine-shop products	48.46	48.36	47.15	43.6	43.8	42.6	110.9	110.3	110.3
Engines and turbines	44.93	46.22	43.10	38.7	39.7	37.3	115.9	116.2	115.8
Tractors	47.86	46.77	51.32	41.6	41.2	43.8	115.1	114.0	117.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	44.99	47.14	50.63	41.7	43.3	45.6	108.0	108.8	111.1
Machine tools	53.01	52.26	51.94	44.2	44.4	45.1	119.5	117.8	115.2
Machine-tool accessories	51.21	51.18	51.17	42.1	42.4	42.2	122.2	120.9	121.4
Textile machinery	47.55	48.05	47.91	45.6	46.8	47.0	104.3	102.7	101.9
Typewriters	44.30	44.83	45.05	44.4	45.1	45.3	99.7	99.4	99.5
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	53.89	50.80	49.90	42.8	42.1	42.0	126.5	121.0	119.2
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	42.45	42.08	43.27	44.0	42.3	43.9	96.6	99.5	98.6
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	52.48	54.05	55.13	46.5	48.2	49.5	113.8	112.7	112.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment [2]	45.13	45.85	46.09	41.2	42.2	42.3	109.2	108.7	108.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	46.59	48.77	48.98	37.4	39.0	38.8	124.6	124.9	126.4
Locomotives	59.47	56.70	55.39	43.7	42.8	42.2	136.0	132.3	131.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	43.34	45.24	43.27	40.8	41.8	40.6	107.1	108.3	106.6
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	46.98	47.49	44.81	39.7	40.1	38.1	118.2	118.6	117.6
Aircraft engines	45.34	46.37	43.56	38.0	39.0	36.7	119.5	118.8	118.8
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	45.69	49.43	51.06	34.9	38.0	38.7	130.6	129.6	131.9
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	46.41	44.84	41.44	43.4	43.7	41.1	107.0	102.6	100.8
Automobiles	47.04	47.04	44.65	38.6	38.7	36.5	121.8	121.7	122.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	45.56	45.13	44.41	43.0	43.0	42.5	105.8	104.9	104.4
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	46.87	47.12	47.90	44.1	44.4	44.9	106.2	105.8	106.7
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	50.27	50.06	48.32	44.8	44.4	43.8	112.1	112.7	110.4
Clocks and watches	38.35	38.28	36.39	41.2	41.1	38.7	92.9	92.9	94.0
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	45.53	45.14	44.96	43.4	43.4	44.2	104.7	103.8	101.6
Silverware and plated ware	51.40	47.79	47.39	46.3	46.5	47.0	110.5	102.7	100.9
Lighting equipment	42.58	41.45	40.61	40.7	40.7	40.4	104.7	101.9	100.6
Aluminum manufactures	42.70	42.09	39.86	41.0	41.2	39.0	104.1	102.1	102.0
Lumber and timber basic products	32.01	33.08	33.41	40.6	42.2	40.8	78.9	78.4	81.9
Sawmills and logging camps	30.72	31.86	32.38	40.2	41.8	40.3	76.4	76.2	80.4
Planing and plywood mills	36.23	37.13	36.88	41.8	43.4	42.4	86.3	85.2	86.8
Furniture and finished lumber products	35.38	35.82	35.21	42.0	42.7	42.3	84.2	83.9	83.3
Furniture	36.06	36.56	35.39	41.9	42.5	41.7	86.2	86.1	85.0
Caskets and other morticians' goods	36.36	38.27	38.06	41.9	43.5	43.9	87.0	87.6	86.8
Wood preserving	34.31	35.52	36.60	42.9	44.0	44.8	79.9	80.7	81.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	39.06	39.61	39.12	42.1	42.5	41.8	92.7	93.2	93.7
Glass and glassware	39.26	39.90	39.39	41.2	40.5	39.8	95.8	98.5	99.2
Glass products made from purchased glass	35.22	36.68	36.15	41.6	42.8	42.1	86.0	86.0	86.4
Cement	42.79	43.83	43.32	45.2	45.6	45.0	94.7	96.1	96.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	34.84	35.37	34.70	40.2	41.7	40.9	86.4	83.7	84.1
Pottery and related products	36.54	37.15	35.60	40.7	41.9	39.7	90.8	90.8	90.9
Gypsum	43.86	46.12	45.88	46.9	49.1	49.9	94.0	94.0	92.0
Lime	40.38	41.31	39.73	46.8	48.7	47.2	85.5	83.6	84.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	38.48	40.18	41.26	40.7	42.1	42.4	94.8	95.4	97.4
Abrasives	43.98	42.93	43.17	42.9	42.2	41.4	102.4	101.8	104.4
Asbestos products	45.36	45.31	45.48	45.1	45.0	45.9	101.8	100.6	99.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945
Nondurable goods									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	$31.51	$31.12	$31.01	40.3	40.4	40.6	78.3	77.0	76.3
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	28.72	28.21	28.32	40.3	40.4	40.6	71.3	69.8	69.8
Cotton smallwares	33.57	32.86	33.22	40.6	40.8	41.7	82.6	80.4	79.6
Silk and rayon goods	32.05	31.86	31.05	41.0	41.8	40.8	77.7	76.2	76.1
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	35.71	35.60	35.84	40.5	40.4	41.4	88.4	88.2	86.6
Hosiery	31.24	31.35	30.67	37.7	37.7	37.6	82.9	83.0	81.7
Knitted cloth	35.31	35.29	35.42	43.0	43.7	43.9	82.2	80.8	80.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.74	32.21	30.64	38.8	39.2	38.1	81.3	81.3	79.3
Knitted underwear	27.21	27.42	27.46	38.1	38.9	38.9	71.1	70.1	70.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	35.44	34.41	34.95	43.2	42.7	44.0	82.0	80.6	79.5
Carpets and rugs, wool	39.96	37.98	37.80	40.9	41.7	41.5	98.0	91.1	91.2
Hats, fur-felt	48.75	48.34	45.75	41.4	41.5	41.7	117.4	115.4	109.7
Jute goods, except felts	35.54	35.20	35.67	43.8	44.5	45.1	81.2	79.1	79.2
Cordage and twine	33.49	33.51	34.04	43.4	43.7	44.2	77.2	76.7	76.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	31.18	32.15	31.81	36.1	36.8	36.2	86 4	87.5	87.8
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	32.13	32.58	32.40	36.4	36.9	36.1	88.2	88.6	89.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	25.52	26.06	25.53	36.8	37.4	36.6	69.8	69.6	70.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's	27.45	28.02	26.98	35.9	36.7	35.8	76.0	76.3	75.4
Work shirts	20.73	22.05	20.97	35.4	37.1	35.8	59.0	59.5	58.5
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	40.17	41.16	40.87	35.3	35.8	35.6	110.4	112.0	111.9
Corsets and allied garments	31.15	31.17	30.71	39.9	39.5	39.1	78.9	79.1	78.7
Millinery	36.31	43.61	42.92	30.5	33.8	33.6	98.0	104.7	104.3
Handkerchiefs	24.20	24.42	23.93	35.5	36.3	35.3	68.5	67.9	67.8
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	26.31	26.42	25.79	34.6	35.8	35.5	74.7	73.0	72.3
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	30.23	30.12	29.57	38.6	38.9	38.8	77.8	76.9	75.8
Textile bags	29.11	29.49	30.29	39.3	40.3	40.8	74.3	73.3	74.2
Leather and leather products	33.93	34.82	34.62	39.6	40.9	40.6	85.7	85.2	85.3
Leather	42.23	44.50	44.13	42.2	45.0	45.1	100.1	99.2	98.1
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	32.20	33.09	33.44	39.2	40.2	40.7	82.9	82.8	82.5
Boots and shoes	32.37	32.86	32.95	39.2	40.2	39.9	82.1	81.7	82.1
Leather gloves and mittens	29.22	30.17	30.43	36.0	37.1	36.7	81.9	81.4	82.9
Trunks and suitcases	37.88	37.34	34.15	41.3	41.6	39.1	90.4	89.3	87.4
Food	40.31	39.52	39.36	44.4	44.2	44.7	90.7	89.5	88.0
Slaughtering and meat packing	45.78	44.54	45.81	47.6	46.9	48.0	96.4	95.4	95.8
Butter	35.74	35.69	36.37	45.9	46.5	47.2	77.8	76.6	76.4
Condensed and evaporated milk	37.48	37.94	39.35	47.4	47.6	49.7	79.1	79.7	79.1
Ice cream	41.72	41.04	41.81	47.0	46.8	48.0	85.1	84.5	83.8
Flour	43.12	44.93	44.49	47.9	48.7	49.4	90.2	93.0	90.1
Cereal preparations	44.18	45.47	48.83	42.9	44.7	48.4	102.9	101.7	100.9
Baking	41.37	40.21	39.83	45.9	45.8	45.7	89.8	88.0	87.4
Sugar refining, cane	34.52	35.39	37.62	40.6	41.2	43.6	84.4	85.9	86.4
Sugar, beet	40.93	34.93	37.45	46.5	38.2	36.7	87.8	91.4	102.0
Confectionery	31.96	31.22	31.79	40.9	40.6	40.9	79.9	79.0	77.8
Beverages, nonalcoholic	35.74	35.95	36.85	42.6	42.8	44.0	84.0	84.0	83.9
Malt liquors	53.08	53.09	56.03	44.6	45.6	47.5	119.1	116.3	117.8
Canning and preserving	31.29	32 83	32.24	37.8	39.4	40.8	83.7	83.7	79.5
Tobacco manufactures	32.61	33.30	33.21	40.4	42.0	42.3	80.7	79.3	78.6
Cigarettes	34.69	35.44	35.77	40.5	42.3	43.1	85.6	83.8	83.0
Cigars	31.65	32.13	31.40	40.8	42.3	41.6	77.4	76.1	75.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	28.38	29.11	30.11	38.4	39.7	41.6	73.9	73.3	72.4
Paper and allied products	41.25	41.14	40.96	45.7	45.8	45.9	90.3	89.8	89.3
Paper and pulp	44.81	44.86	44.46	47.9	48.2	47.8	93.5	93.1	93.0
Envelopes	38.37	37.81	38.12	44.1	43.7	44.9	87.0	86.6	84.9
Paper bags	36.74	36.65	36.28	43.6	43.6	43.5	85.0	84.7	84.1
Paper boxes	37.42	37.18	36.86	43.6	43.7	43.6	85.9	85.1	84.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	48.87	48.04	48.89	41.7	41.6	42.2	117.2	115.5	115.8
Newspapers and periodicals	52.28	52.29	52.54	38.5	39.1	39.5	133.8	131.9	130.9
Printing, book and job	47.25	45.90	47.39	43.3	42.9	43.7	109.8	107.9	109.2
Lithographing	52.65	51.46	50.62	45.3	44.7	44.7	116.1	115.1	113.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945	Nov. 1945	Oct. 1945	Sept. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Chemicals and allied products	$42.15	$42.88	$43.01	42.5	43.3	43.4	99.1	99.0	99.2
Paints, varnishes, and colors	45.56	45.59	46.23	44.7	45.4	45.8	102.1	100.6	101.1
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	35.84	36.54	36.53	40.9	41.7	41.9	88.5	87.6	87.2
Soap [2]	46.17	47.86	49.83	44.5	46.9	48.0	103.8	102.0	103.7
Rayon and allied products	39.21	39.38	38.85	41.0	41.0	41.1	94.9	96.0	94.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	49.02	49.98	51.46	42.7	43.8	44.8	115.1	114.6	114.8
Explosives and safety fuses	46.48	46.07	42.12	39.9	40.1	39.8	116.6	114.8	105.8
Ammunition, small-arms	41.80	43.94	40.18	39.6	40.7	38.9	105.5	107.9	103.2
Cottonseed oil [3]	30.92	30.60	28.92	53.0	54.6	50.6	58.3	56.1	57.2
Fertilizers	30.87	32.94	33.75	41.6	44.0	44.9	74.2	74.9	75.0
Products of petroleum and coal	54.51	52.01	54.70	44.5	43.0	44.9	122.5	120.9	121.7
Petroleum refining	56.85	53.35	57.37	43.8	42.2	44.8	129.1	128.6	128.1
Coke and byproducts	49.59	45.18	48.82	46.5	43.9	45.2	107.1	103.4	108.6
Roofing materials	46.11	46.76	44.12	47.0	48.3	45.2	98.1	96.7	97.6
Rubber products	44.62	45.61	47.20	40.1	41.4	43.0	111.2	110.2	109.8
Rubber tires and inner tubes	47.78	49.48	53.59	38.1	40.1	43.1	124.9	123.1	124.3
Rubber boots and shoes [3]	41.82	40.82	41.97	44.7	44.3	44.8	93.5	92.2	93.6
Rubber goods, other	40.96	41.32	40.62	42.1	42.7	42.4	97.1	96.6	95.7
Miscellaneous industries	40.32	40.16	40.10	41.8	42.0	42.2	96.4	95.7	95.1
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	46.47	46.52	45.77	41.2	41.3	40.6	111.7	111.9	112.1
Pianos, organs, and parts	38.93	38.53	39.71	41.3	40.6	41.4	94.6	95.4	96.5

NONMANUFACTURING

Mining:							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Anthracite	$47.82	$56.45	$49.85	35.7	41.2	37.0	133.2	136.8	134.5
Bituminous coal	56.28	39.98	52.73	44.8	33.0	42.3	126.5	124.2	126.1
Metal	45.51	46.31	45.33	43.3	44.3	43.0	105.2	104.6	105.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic	41.79	42.63	41.91	46.1	47.2	46.5	90.9	90.2	90.0
Crude-petroleum production	54.94	53.01	55.41	45.2	44.4	45.4	120.8	118.9	122.2
Public utilities:									
Telephone	41.89	40.54	39.62	42.0	41.9	41.5	100.1	97.2	95.9
Telegraph [2]	36.89	37.34	37.87	45.0	45.4	45.9	82.0	82.2	82.5
Electric light and power	49.97	49.09	49.91	42.5	43.3	43.0	115.1	112.7	114.9
Street railways and busses	49.85	50.40	50.54	50.3	50.9	51.3	98.1	98.2	98.3
Wholesale trade	44.94	44.60	43.85	42.3	42.6	42.4	105.6	104.5	102.5
Retail trade	28.88	29.17	28.95	40.0	40.4	40.7	80.0	79.2	78.3
Food	34.89	34.34	34.20	40.6	40.9	41.2	81.8	79.8	79.0
General merchandise	24.00	24.12	23.89	36.1	36.8	37.3	65.0	64.7	63.8
Apparel	30.96	30.92	30.05	37.2	37.5	37.5	85.8	85.2	82.7
Furniture and housefurnishings	41.21	41.12	39.74	43.7	44.0	44.0	95.1	93.9	92.7
Automotive	45.04	44.20	44.82	45.8	45.9	46.9	99.1	98.4	96.9
Lumber and building materials	38.46	39.31	39.24	42.1	43.1	43.4	92.7	92.7	92.0
Hotels (year-round) [4]	25.54	25.08	24.79	44.2	44.2	43.4	57.5	56.5	56.7
Power laundries	28.64	28.74	28.59	42.7	43.2	43.4	67.3	66.2	66.1
Cleaning and dyeing	32.75	34.05	33.00	42.4	43.5	43.1	78.6	79.4	77.8
Brokerage	68.46	65.83	60.69	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Insurance	46.96	46.88	46.73	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of 1 pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a slightly smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

[2] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Cutlery and edge tools.—August 1945 to $39.77, 41.3 hours, and 96.2 cents.

Communication equipment.—August 1945 to $45.51 and 42.8 hours.

Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.—July 1945 to $50.82 and 111.4 cents; August 1945 to $41.20, 36.9 hours, and 111.6 cents.

Soap.—July 1945 to $47.70 and 99.3 cents.

Cottonseed oil.—June and July 1945 to $28.89 and $27.54; June, July, and August 1945 to 59.2, 58.5, and 58.5 cents.

Rubber boots and shoes.—August 1945 to $41.43 and 44.3 hours.

[3] Excludes messengers and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies.

[4] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

[5] Not available.

Labor Force, December 1945

THE civilian labor force declined by 130,000 persons between November and December 1945 to the level of 53,310,000, according to the Bureau of the Census sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Employment dropped by 370,000 during the month, while the volume of unemployment increased by 240,000 to reach a postwar high of 1,950,000.

The rise in unemployment between November and December largely reflected the entrance of ex-servicemen into the civilian labor market. Unemployment among men increased by 300,000 between these months, being partially offset by a decrease of 60,000 among women. In addition to the 1,480,000 men and 470,000 women unemployed in December, there were nearly 2,000,000 discharged veterans outside the labor force, most of whom were expected to reenter shortly.

A seasonal decline of 1,230,000 in farm employment, following completion of fall harvests, was the main factor underlying the decline in total employment between November and December. This reduction was in part offset by an unusually large gain of 860,000 in nonfarm employment.

The upswing in nonagricultural employment reflected the inflow of discharged servicemen and the usual pre-Christmas expansion of employment in retail trade. Employment of men in nonagricultural industries rose by 910,000 during the month, while employment of women dropped by 50,000. The drop among women nonfarm workers was contraseasonal in character and probably indicates withdrawals from the labor force on the part of returned servicemen's wives.

Total Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status, Hours Worked, and Sex, November and December 1945

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over [1]					
	Total, both sexes		Male		Female	
	November [2]	December [2]	November [2]	December [2]	November [2]	December [2]
Total labor force [3]	62,620	61,160	44,250	43,800	18,370	17,360
Civilian labor force	53,440	53,310	35,280	36,130	18,160	17,180
Unemployment	1,710	1,950	1,180	1,480	530	470
Employment	51,730	51,360	34,100	34,650	17,630	16,710
Nonagricultural	43,310	44,170	27,750	28,660	15,560	15,510
Worked 35 hours or more	35,990	36,220	24,340	24,650	11,650	11,570
Worked 15–34 hours	4,460	4,700	1,910	2,130	2,550	2,570
Worked 1–14 hours [4]	1,280	1,440	490	610	790	830
With a job but not at work [5]	1,580	1,810	1,010	1,270	570	540
Agricultural	8,420	7,190	6,350	5,990	2,070	1,200
Worked 35 hours or more	6,460	4,820	5,350	4,410	1,110	410
Worked 15–34 hours	1,610	1,780	760	1,170	850	610
Worked 1–14 hours [4]	220	330	120	210	100	120
With a job but not at work [5]	130	260	120	200	(*)	(*)

[1] Estimates are subject to sampling variation which may be large in cases where the quantities shown are relatively small. Therefore, the smaller estimates should be used with caution; those under 100,000 are not presented in the table but are replaced with the asterisk (*). All data exclude persons in institutions.

[2] These figures include an adjustment for recently discharged veterans who had not yet returned to their homes and who were, therefore, not adequately represented in the sample.

[3] Total labor force consists of the civilian labor force and the armed forces. Estimates of the armed forces during the census week are projected from data on net strength as of the first of the month

[4] Excludes persons engaged only in incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours); these persons are classified as not in the labor force.

[5] Includes persons who had a job or business, but who did not work during the census week because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor dispute, or because of temporary lay-off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days of lay-off. Does not include unpaid family workers.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

February 1946

Cooperative Movement

The cooperative movement and present-day problems, with special reference to rehabilitation and reconstruction. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1945. 232 pp. (Studies and reports, series H, No. 5.) $1. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Appraisal of the cooperative movement throughout the world with respect to (1) restoration of basic economic functions (food and agriculture, transport, power, and housing) in the various countries; (2) social problems of rehabilitation, such as employment, improvement of the standard of living, and democratic management of the economy; and (3) conditions and forms of the cooperative contribution to the rehabilitation and reconstruction effort. This comprehensive analysis reaches the conclusion that the full use of the potentialities of the cooperative movement—which is "an instrument standing ready-made and well-adapted for immediate use in the work of rehabilitation"—will depend on a variety of factors, among them the attitude of legislators and the extent of recognition by public opinion and by the policy makers in charge of reconstruction. This report, dealing with the comparatively long-range problems, is a companion piece to a previous report, "Cooperative organizations and postwar relief," which dealt with the immediate postwar problems.

Activities of credit unions in 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 12 pp. (Bull. No. 850; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1945, with additional data.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Farmers' cooperative construction service. By Roy J. Burroughs. (In Land Policy Review, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Vol. VIII, No. 4, Washington, winter 1945, pp. 16–21. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Presents a plan for a Nation-wide farmers' cooperative construction service, including the construction of homes as well as farm buildings and the servicing of equipment. Proposes that the regional farmers' cooperative wholesales take the initiative in forming a national association.

Cooperative century: A pageant of the people. By L. du Garde Peach. Manchester, England, Cooperative Union, Ltd., [1944?]. 79 pp. First acting edition. 2s.

Script and stage directions for a pageant setting forth in dramatic form the purposes and accomplishments of the cooperative movement.

Historia de las doctrinas cooperativas. By Gromoslav Mladenatz. México, D. F., Editorial America, 1944. 242 pp. (Biblioteca de economía política IX.)

Cost of Living

Cost-of-living trends—their meaning for teachers. Washington, National Education Association, Division of Research, 1945. 25 pp., bibliography. 15 cents.

It is stated that an index showing changes in living costs should be based on commodities typically purchased by individuals or families in the occupational group under consideration. Attention is given to other indexes, particularly those of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and the indexes constructed by the National Education Association for teachers are discussed in their relation to proposals made by the Association for advances in the salaries of teachers.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

Nivel de vida de la familia obrera, [Argentina]—evolución durante la segunda guerra mundial, 1939–45. Buenos Aires, Dirección de Estadística Social, 1945. 170 pp., charts; processed.

Collection of tables and graphs, with a brief introduction and some explanatory notes, showing, for the city of Buenos Aires and for each Argentine Province and Territory, variations in cost of articles of prime necessity, and normal consumption of articles and services by the family of an industrial worker with three children. For Buenos Aires, data on prices are given for the period from 1914 to August 1945, and for the rest of the country, from 1939 to 1945.

A sample inquiry in the income and expenditure of working-class households [in Great Britain], changes from 1943 to 1944. By T. Schulz. Oxford, England, Oxford University, Institute of Statistics, 1945. 35 pp., charts. 1s.

Education and Guidance

Adult education for Negroes in the United States. (In Journal of Negro Education, Howard University, Bureau of Educational Research, Washington, Vol. XIV, No. 3, summer number, 1945; 240 pp., bibliography. $2.)

This yearbook number of the journal is devoted to the subject listed, divided into three parts: The need for and philosophy of adult education; Adult education programs among Negroes; Extension and improvement of adult educational activities among Negroes.

Adult education after the war. Report of an inquiry made for the British Institute of Adult Education. London, Oxford University Press, 1945. 64 pp. 4s. net.

Deals with developments in the adult-education movement in Great Britain and the institutions in the field.

Colleges and local centers for adult education. London, Workers' Educational Association, [1945]. 22 pp. (W. E. A. educational pamphlet No. 9.) 6d.

Describes facilities for adult education in Great Britain.

State education in Scotland. Tillicoultry, National Council of Labor Colleges 1944. 8 pp. 1d.

Memorandum presented by the National Council of Labor Colleges to the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland.

Technical education: An interim report of a special committee of the Advisory Council on Education in Scotland. Edinburgh, Scottish Education Department, 1945. 13 pp. (Cmd. 6593.) 3d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, Edinburgh.

Recommendations are made concerning technical education for those who have left school.

Techniques of guidance: Tests, records, and counseling in a guidance program. By Arthur E. Traxler. New York, Harper & Bros., 1945. 394 pp., pasters, bibliographies, charts. $3.50.

Employment and Unemployment

Financing full employment. By John Philip Wernette. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1945. 126 pp., charts. $2.

The author deals primarily with the contribution toward maintaining long-run full employment which would be made by a new monetary and fiscal system geared to keeping private enterprise alive by underwriting a big market for the goods and services which private business can produce. The present monetary system (gold and bank credit standard) is held unlikely to produce the necessary secular growth in the amount of money. The suggested remedy is a "full employment standard" operated by a Federal stabilization board with the assistance of a Federal stabilization advisory committee. To counter deflationary tendencies the board would create new money for the use of the Federal Government in retiring its war debt and in meeting deficits occasioned by expansions of public works and unemployment-benefit payments. The Federal debt, instead of growing, would be nearly liquidated by the end of the century. In the abnormal event of a tendency toward inflation, effective restraint would be exercised by means of a Federal budget surplus coupled with the threat or actual use of credit control by the board, which would inherit present Federal Reserve Board powers but with authority to order larger variations in the legal minimum reserve ratios of member banks. Concluding chapters discuss a number of complementary domestic policies, and the international aspects of the prosperity problem.

Foreign trade and employment: Typical views on a relationship of vital importance for national policy. By Edgar E. Poulton. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 24 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

A brief article based on this study was published in the November 1945 Monthly Labor Review (p. 858).

Full employment. By Buel W. Patch. Washington, Editorial Research Reports (1013 13th Street NW.), 1945. 18 pp. (Vol. II, 1945, No. 4.) $1.

Several proposed British and American Government full-employment policies are briefly described and analyzed in respect to their methods of approach and the major issues involved.

Vollbeschäftigung—der andere weg. By Fritz Marbach. Bern, Switzerland, Verlag A. Francke A.-G., 1943. 75 pp.

A Swiss economist maintains that programs for approximately full employment must be a concern of government in the postwar period, in order to assure stability and prosperity and the survival of political democracy. He furthermore maintains that no country can achieve full employment in isolation and that international cooperation is the only way.

World trade and employment. New York, Committee on International Economic Policy, Advisory Committee on Economics, 1945. 20 pp. 10 cents.

The point of view of the advisory committee is indicated by the statement that if adequate and productive work at decent living standards is to be available, world trade must be restored and expanded. The report outlines policies which it is believed will promote concerted effort among the nations in the interest of mutual prosperity.

Postwar employment in Kansas. By L. L. Waters. Lawrence, University of Kansas, 1945. 30 pp., charts. (Industrial research series No. 5.)

Postwar foreign trade employment and sales prospects in Ohio. By Eugene Van Cleef. Columbus, Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1945. 36 pp., charts. (Research monograph No. 36.)

The trend of employment and unemployment [in Ireland] in the years 1943 and 1944. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, [1945]. 28 pp. 6d.

Cites statistics showing changes in employment and the amount of employment furnished under various schemes. According to the report, private employment in Ireland increased during 1944.

Handicapped Workers

Aid to physically handicapped, Part 12: Accident prevention. Hearings, June 6-8, 1945, before the Committee on Labor, Subcommittee on Aid to Physically Handicapped, House of Representatives, 79th Congress, 1st session, pursuant to H. Res. 45 * * *. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 64 pp.

Discussion of successful experiences in the retraining and placement of persons injured in industrial accidents, a proposed Federal-State plan for the reduction of such accidents, and other material.

From wheel chair to worker: Books on rehabilitation. Baltimore, Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1945. 12 pp.

[*Registration under the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, Great Britain, 1944.*] London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1945. 8 pp.

Housing

Housing after World War I: Will history repeat itself? Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, 1945. 59 pp., charts; processed. (National housing bull. No. 4.)

Improved family living through improved housing. New York, Woman's Foundation, 1945. 28 pp. Free.

Based on a conference held by six groups of consultants studying problems of the community, home, and family.

The Soviet housing problem. By Hans Blumenfeld. (In American Review of the Soviet Union, New York, November 1945, pp. 12–25; plans, illus. 65 cents.)

Discussion of housing conditions and laws under the Soviet regime, with historical background. Soviet housing types are described, and an account is given of neighborhood planning, the 1941 building program, and postwar planning.

Industrial Hygiene

Outline of occupational disease prevention. By R. P. Blake. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1945. 33 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Carbon monoxide: Its hazards and the mechanism of its action. By W. F. von Oettingen. Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Public Health Service, 1944. 257 pp., bibliography, diagrams. (Public health bull. No. 290.) 35 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The toxicity of molybdenum. By Lawrence T. Fairhall and others. Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Public Health Service, 1945. 36 pp., bibliography, diagrams. (Public health bull. No. 293.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Bibliography on mental hygiene in industry. New York, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, Inc., Division on Rehabilitation, 1945. 9 pp.; mimeographed. 20 cents.

Suggested methods for installing dust-allaying equipment in bituminous-coal mines. By C. W. Owings. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1945. 31 pp., diagrams, illus.; mimeographed. (Report of investigations No. 3843.)

Industrial Relations

Labor policy of the Federal Government. By Harold W. Metz. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1945. 284 pp. $2.50.

The study attempts to survey the general labor policy of the Federal Government. It covers labor legislation, bargaining power of wage earners, labor organizations, employer-employee relations, wages, peaceful settlement of labor disputes, etc.

National collective bargaining policy. New York, Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1945. 102 pp., bibliography. (Industrial relations monograph No. 9.) $1.25.

This study submits 39 detailed recommendations for the reconstruction and application of national collective-bargaining policy to create an atmosphere conducive to the improvement of industrial relations. It focuses attention on the role of government in labor-management relations.

Trends in collective bargaining—a summary of recent experience. By S. T. Williamson and Herbert Harris. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1945. 254 pp. $2.

Includes chapters on developments regarding wages, hours, job security, and other subjects of collective bargaining. The authors discuss the effect of the war on industrial relations and conclude with the report and recommendations of the labor committee of the Twentieth Century Fund.

Union agreements in the tobacco industry, January 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 25 pp. (Bull. No. 847.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Understanding labor. By Bernard H. Fitzpatrick. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945. 179 pp. $2.

Within the framework of the author's experience in the field of labor relations as union representative, arbitrator, and management consultant, he analyzes the structure of trade-unions and the influence of the National Labor Relations Act and other legislation on union structure and on industrial-relations procedures.

Industry Reports

Railroad consolidation and employee welfare. By U. S. [Transportation] Board of Investigation and Research. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. 43 pp. (Senate doc. No. 77, 79th Cong., 1st sess.)

New deal for coal. By Harold Wilson. London, Contact Publications, Ltd., 1945. 264 pp. 8s.

Analysis of the coal problem in Great Britain, with a radical scheme for solution prepared in consultation with leading members of the National Union of Mineworkers and of the Labor Party.

The cotton spinning industry. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1945. 51 pp. 9d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.
Report of the Evershed Commission, set up to review wages and methods of organization of work in the Lancashire cotton-spinning industry and to make recommendations.

Domestic work—Britain's largest industry. By Elaine Burton. London, Frederick Muller, Ltd., 1944. 16 pp. 6d. net.

Labor and Social Legislation

From voluntarism to union regulation—recent State legislation. By Leifur Magnusson. (In State Government, Chicago, December 1945, pp. 230–237. 35 cents.)

State legislation on labor relations and discrimination in employment, 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1797; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, December 1945.) Free.

Rhode Island labor laws. Providence, Department of Labor, December 1945. 213, xvi pp.

Labor legislation in Canada. Ottawa, Department of Labor, August 1945. 33 pp.
Historical outline of the principal Dominion and Provincial labor laws. Except in the section concerning industrial disputes, little attention has been given to wartime regulations.

Labor legislation and social insurance in Poland. By J. Bloch. London, Stevens & Sons, Ltd., 1945. 55 pp. 4s.
General summary of Polish labor and social legislation during the period between the two world wars.

Negro in Industry

Negro employment in the aircraft industry. By Robert C. Weaver. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., August 1945, pp. 597–625. $1.25.)

The Negro integrated. By Nicholas S. Falcone. New York, New York State War Council, Committee on Discrimination in Employment, 1945. 35 pp.
A study undertaken to ascertain the progress made by war industries in the employment of Negroes and to acquaint personnel managers and other supervisors with the capacities of Negroes to do higher grade work initially or after upgrading.

The Negro worker in Minnesota. [St. Paul?], Governor's Interracial Commission, 1945. 57 pp.

Will Negroes get jobs now? By Herbert R. Northrup. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1945. 31 pp., bibliography. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 110.) 10 cents.
The principal subjects discussed are: Negro labor during the war; employment prospects after reconversion; outlook for Negroes in particular industries; the South in war and reconversion; fair employment practices; and the Government's role in full employment.

Occupations

How to start your own business. By Walter F. Shaw and Edith W. Kay. Chicago and New York, Ziff-Davis Publishing Corporation, 1945. 240 pp. $2.
The book deals not only with the problems involved in starting a retail business but also with factors that influence its success. It lists businesses that can be started for varying amounts of money and gives suggestions as to effective purchasing, bookkeeping, inventory control, selection of employees, customer relations, and many other matters.

If you are considering interior decoration. By Jean MacCargo Stampe. Rochester, N. Y., Rochester Institute of Technology, 1944. 22 pp., bibliography. (Vocational guidance series, pamphlet No. 11.) 10 cents.
Other occupational fields covered in this series of vocational-guidance pamphlets, prepared primarily for high-school seniors, include retailing, photography, industrail chemistry, applied art, costume design, mechanical and electrical fields, food administration, and publishing and printing.

Optometry. Minneapolis, Minn., American Optometric Association, Inc., 1945. 21 pp., bibliography.

Personnel and Industrial Management

The development of foremen in management. New York, American Management Association, 1945. 94 pp., bibliography. (Research report No. 7.) $2.25 to nonmembers.

Part 2 of a study of the foreman's role in industry. Part 1 (Research report No. 6) deals with the unionization of foremen.

Employment procedures—selection, recruitment, placement: A selected list of references. Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Library, September 1945. 27 pp.; processed.

Interviewing—a selected list of references. Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Library, November 1945. 10 pp.; processed.

Job analysis for retail stores. By Michael J. Jucius, H. H. Maynard, Carroll L. Shartle. Columbus, Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1945. 66 pp., charts, forms. (Research monograph No. 37.) $2.

What is this managment? By Walter Puckey. London, Chapman & Hall, Ltd., 1945. 281 pp. 15s. net.

Deals with the qualifications that managers should have, responsibilities of managerial work, and the training and action standards required.

Working conditions and employee services. By B. J. Cohen and M. M. Towy-Evans. London, Institute of Labor Management, 1945. 87 pp., bibliography.

Covers primarily the social and physical aspects of working conditions in British factories.

Year-end survey of employee magazines. By Frank Prendergast. (In Industry, Associated Industries of Massachusetts, Boston, December 1945, pp. 25, 26, 28, 36. 35 cents.)

A list of all employee publications (145) distributed to Massachusetts employees, as shown in a check made by Associated Industries of Massachusetts.

Price Control and Rationing

Price control since the general maximum price regulation. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 1785; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1945, with additional data.) Free.

Aspects of Federal rent control. By John F. McCarthy. (In Cornell Law Quarterly, Ithaca, N. Y., September 1945, pp. 68–77. 85 cents.)

Discusses the program, applicable legislation and regulations, and the constitutional bases for Federal control of residential rents.

The food controls of the future. By F. Le Gros Clark. (In Food Manufacture, London, April, May, June 1945. Also reprinted. 15 pp.)

Considers the extent to which it is practicable and desirable for the British Government to intervene in the field of food manufacture and distribution. The conclusion is reached that any Ministry of Food that may operate in Britain in peacetime must be adapted to the changed conditions.

Price control and control of inflation. By E. M. H. Lloyd. (In Review of Economic Statistics, Cambridge, Mass., November 1945, pp. 149–155.)

Dealing primarily with inflation as a major problem in Europe, the author concludes that "almost any tax is better than allowing inflation to get out of hand."

Rationing in Australia: A review of the work of the Commonwealth Rationing Commission, June 1942–December 1944. Melbourne, [Rationing Commission?], 1945. 32 pp., map.

Describes the machinery for rationing, the reasons for introducing the limitations, and the amounts of consumer rations.

Social Security (General)

1944–1945 programs for postwar social security and medical care. By Edwin E. Witte. (In Review of Economic Statistics, Cambridge, Mass., November 1945, pp. 171–188.)

Notes wartime progress of social-security programs in other sections of the world, especially in Latin America and the British Empire; analyzes development and status of recent programs for social security, medical care, and full employment in Great Britain and the United States; and summarizes recommendations in the social-security field, adopted at the 1944 International Labor Conference.

Australian social service. By P. J. Clarey. (In Personnel Journal, New York, December 1945, pp. 221–227. 75 cents.)
Traces the expansion of the Australian social-security system and shows benefit rates.

Premier rapport sur le fonctionnement de l'Office National de Sécurité Sociale, [Belgium]. (In Revue du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale de Belgique, Brussels, October 1945, pp. 650–664.)
Report on operations under the Belgian social-security system organized under decree-law of December 28, 1944.

Social policy in occupied Czechoslovakia, 1938–44. By J. W. Bruegel. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, August-September 1945, pp. 154–175. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)
An official of the Czechoslovak Ministry of Economic Reconstruction shows the influence on social legislation of German occupation of Czechoslovakia and how drastically the rights of workers were curtailed.

El seguro social en México. México, D. F., Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social, 1943. 533 pp.

Health and welfare services for mothers and children in the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics. By Anna Kalet Smith. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1945. 40 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. Free.

Subsistence Homesteads

One foot on the soil: A study of subsistence homesteads in Alabama. By Paul W. Wager. University, Ala., University of Alabama, Bureau of Public Administration, 1945. 230 pp., map.
Covers land acquisition and development; family selection, characteristics, turn-over, attainments, and attitudes; land utilization; experience with cooperative societies; administration of subsistence homesteads; and fiscal record of five projects established in Alabama under the program begun early in the depression. The author reaches the conclusion that there is a place for such homesteads in the American economy, but that to be successful they should be not over 1½ to 2 acres in area, the homesteaders should have free time to work on the place either a full day a week or have a work schedule giving them several consecutive hours at frequent intervals, that in establishing homesteads "infiltration" should be favored rather than entire new communities, and that guidance rather than supervision should be provided. The author also believes that the original principles announced for the subsistence-homestead program were sound, and "it is unfortunate that they were never fully tested."

Unemployment Insurance

Report of the [California] Senate Interim Committee on Unemployment Insurance. Sacramento, State Printing Office, 1945. 159 pp.
Evaluation of the provisions and operation of the present California Unemployment Insurance Act, with recommendations for liberalization of the act and improvement of its administration. Advocates a disability-insurance program, to be financed out of the workers' present unemployment-insurance contributions.

Unemployment compensation—how it works for working women. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1945. Folder. (Union series No. 4.) Free.

L'évolution du chômage en France depuis la libération. (In Bulletin de la Statistique Générale de la France, Ministère de l'Économie Nationale, Paris, April-May 1945, pp. 171–174.)
Titles of and excerpts from decrees providing unemployment benefits, from January 8, 1944, to April 12, 1945, and statistics on beneficiaries under the recent legislation and the former unemployment fund.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Wages of agricultural labor in the United States. By Louis J. Ducoff. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1945. 127 pp., maps, charts. (Technical bull. No. 895.) 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

This report on agricultural wages examines the functional role and rewards of hired farm laborers in our economy and their changing welfare in times of depression and prosperity, with emphasis on the postwar objectives of full employment and a progressively better balance in agriculture between population and resources. Includes data on the agricultural industry and its employing sector; the number, composition, and status of wage workers on farms; structure of farm wage rates; wages as an expense of agricultural production; changes and differentials in farm wage rates in relation to associated factors; wage rates in agriculture and industry; earnings and welfare of farm wage workers and their families; wartime regulation of farm wage rates; and considerations for postwar agricultural wage policy.

Wages in the basic lumber industry in the Far West, 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 23 pp. (Bull. No. 840; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1945.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Earnings and wage practices in municipal governments of 15 cities, 1944. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1945. 26 pp. (Bull No. 848; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1945, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Les salaires en France en octobre 1944. (In Bulletin de la Statistique Générale de la France, Ministère de l'Économie Nationale, Paris, April–May 1945, pp. 155–170.)

Decrees on wages and family allowances from August 24, 1944, to February 28, 1945, and statistics on wages in commerce and industry at various dates from 1935 to 1944, with explanatory notes.

Lönestatistisk årsbok för Sverige, 1943. Stockholm, Socialstyrelsen, 1945. 149 pp., charts.

General wage report for Sweden for 1943 with comparative data for other years in some cases. A French translation of table of contents and a French résumé are provided.

Women in Industry and the Professions

Analysis of State equal pay laws as of October 15, 1945. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1945. 3 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Differentials in pay for women. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1945. 17 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

The outlook for women in occupations in the medical and other health services: Women dentists; Dental hygienists. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1945. 21 and 17 pp., bibliographies, illus. (Bull. No. 203, Nos. 9 and 10.) 10 cents each, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Statement to the [U. S.] National War Labor Board in support of union's request to abolish discrimination against married women's working. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1945. 27 pp.; processed. Free.

Prepared by the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor in the case of the Upstate [New York] Telephone Workers' Union vs. the Upstate Telephone Corporation of New York.

Women at work: A survey of industrial women workers in Detroit. Duluth, Minn., Young Women's Christian Association, 1945. 30 pp., bibliography. 35 cents.

A study of women on war work in four [British] factories. By S. Wyatt. London, Medical Research Council, Industrial Health Research Board, 1945. 44 pp. (Report No. 88.) 9d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

Youth Problems

Building the future for children and youth: Next steps proposed by the National Commission on Children in Wartime. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1945. 59 pp. (Publication No. 310.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.
Child-labor legislation is one of the subjects considered.

Which jobs for young workers?, No. 15: Advisory standards for the slaughtering and meat-packing industry. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1945. Folder. Free.

Asistencia social al menor, [Argentina]. By José L. Araya. Rosario, Editorial Rosario, 1945. 374 pp.
A chapter on protection of the working minor analyzes legislation on the subject, through March 24, 1945, dealing with minimum working age, maximum working hours per week, prohibited occupations, and apprenticeship (including contracts, wages of apprentices, vocational training, and penalties for infractions of the apprenticeship law).

Juvenile employment and blind alley labor [in Great Britain]—the problem and its remedies. London, London Trades Council, [1945?]. 16 pp.

General Reports

Report of the [Canadian] Department of Labor for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1945. Ottawa, 1945. 94 pp. 25 cents.
Gives a history of the Department of Labor in wartime and describes its activities in important fields of operation, such as industrial relations and wage policy.

Administration report of the Ceylon Commissioner of Labor for 1944. Colombo, 1945. 52 pp. 1 rupee, Government Record Office, Colombo.

Statistical abstract of the Republic of China, 1945. Chungking, Directorate of Statistics, 1945. 187 pp. (In Chinese and English.)
The material is presented under eight main topics: Area and population; agriculture; industry and commerce; public and private finance; communication; education; social administration and public health; and government structure. The section on social administration and public health includes data on cost of living, wages, working hours, labor and other organizations, and cooperative societies.

Ecuador en cifras, 1938 a 1942. Quito, Ministerio de Hacienda, Dirección de Estadística, 1944. 515 pp.
Items of labor interest covered in this statistical compilation include cost-of-living indexes, for production, social insurance, public assistance, labor organizations, industrial disputes, average annual wages and salaries in designated occupations, and cooperative societies. Data on some of these topics are brought down to 1943.

Mobilization of manpower in Great Britain for the second great war. By Sir Godfrey H. Ince. Manchester, England, Manchester Statistical Society, 1945. 36 pp., charts. 5s.
Account of the means used in mobilizing labor in Britain for the war effort and an evaluation of the results.

The use and abuse of statistics, with special reference to Australian economic and social statistics in peace and war. By F. R. E. Mauldon. Crawley, Western Australia, University Bookshop, 1944, 99 pp., charts. 3s.
One chapter discusses statistics of cost of living, employment, unemployment, and wages.

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